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ABSTRACT

Secondary education in Romania is characterized by innovations introduced by the communist system and by recent efforts to restructure the system. This book presents a systematic and coherent exposition of the Romanian educational system, and outlines the essential problems the system faces. The book opens with the historical, social, and political context of Romanian secondary education, looking at structural characteristics and current efforts to decentralize the administration and management of education. Some of the specific problems in the system include educating ethnic minorities in their native tongues, the need for increased cooperation between schools and society, the lack of efficiency in education, and the challenges associated with financing and budgets. Educational reform must contend with economic problems and rising unemployment, a dramatic drop in the birth rate, a lack of resources, the increased use of illicit drugs, and a decided lack of enthusiasm for education. Three appendices offer data on educational finance, demographics, types of schools, and the state of science education. (RJM)

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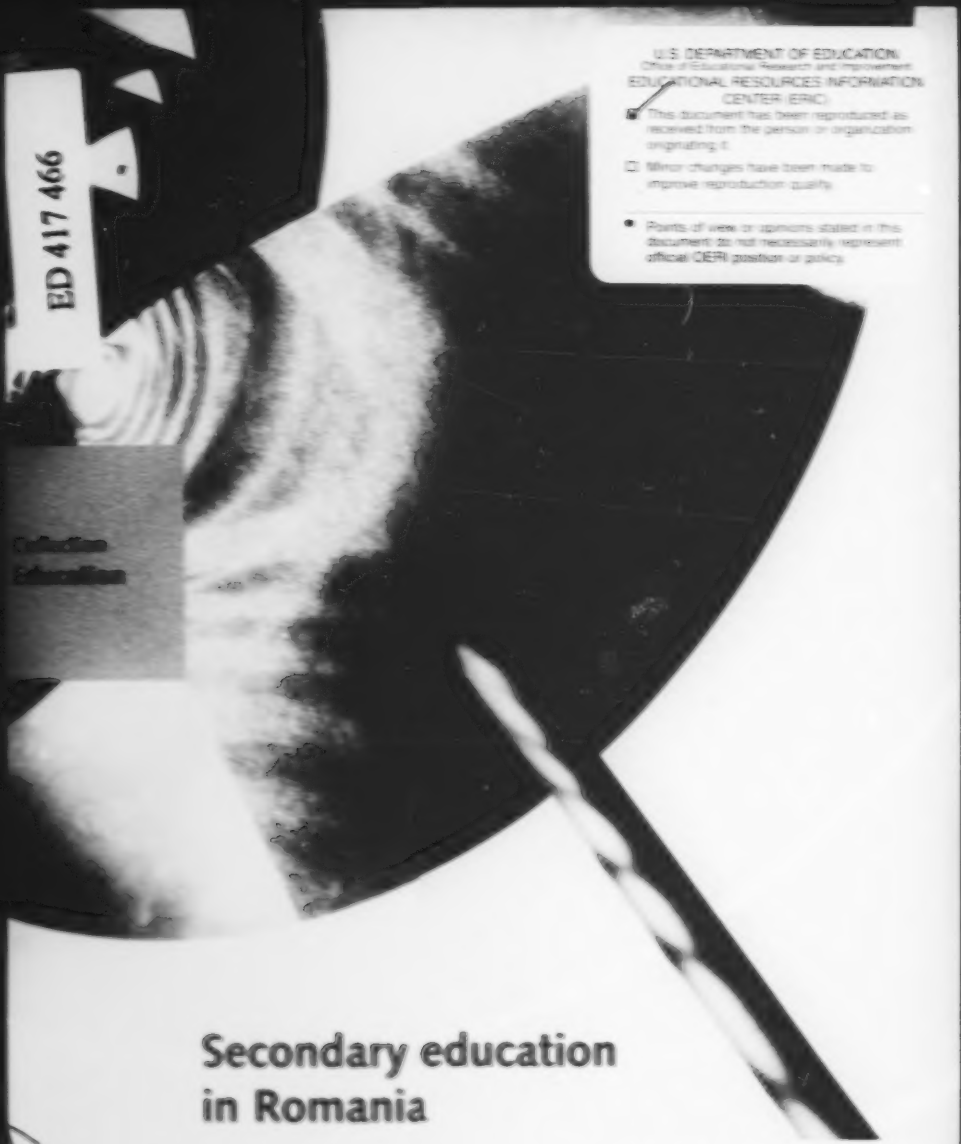

Secondary education in Romania

Council of Europe Press

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Secondary education in Romania

by Dalkmara-Ana Georgescu

Guide to secondary education in Europe
Editor Denis Kallen

A secondary education for Europe
Council for Cultural Co-operation

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The **Council of Europe** was founded in 1949 to achieve greater unity between European parliamentary democracies. It is the oldest of the European political institutions and has forty member states,[1] including the fifteen members of the European Union. It is the widest intergovernmental and interparliamentary grouping in Europe, and has its headquarters in the French city of Strasbourg.

Only questions related to national defence are excluded from the Council of Europe's work, and the Organisation has activities in the following areas: democracy; human rights and fundamental freedoms; media and communication; social and economic affairs; education, culture, heritage and sport; youth; health, environment and regional planning; local democracy; and legal co-operation.

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The CDCC's programmes are an integral part of the Council of Europe's work and, like the programmes in other sectors, they contribute to the Organisation's three overarching policy objectives for the 1990s:

– the protection, reinforcement and promotion of human rights and fundamental freedoms and pluralist democracy;

– the promotion of an awareness of European identity;

– the search for common responses to the great challenges facing European society.

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Denis Kallen has undertaken the difficult task of the general co-ordination of this series, guaranteeing its coherence and thus allowing comparisons to be made among countries.

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Foreword

The features specific to the Romanian educational system (in particular the secondary level) are due on the one hand to the "innovations" introduced by the communist system (artificial extension of compulsory schooling to ten years and, thereafter, in 1989, to twelve years, the creation of industrial lycea leading to the baccalaureate in the same way as the academic lycea, etc.), and on the other to the recent endeavours to restructure the system and eliminate the "malformations" and the most serious dysfunctioning.

On reading the report, the reader may have the impression that the outlook for Romanian education is poor and that at present its situation is somewhat chaotic. However, it should be borne in mind that a critical presentation is only the reflection of the great difficulties facing the system on which all attempts to make it more efficient and to ensure its normal working founder.

Fortunately, awareness of this state of affairs and these difficulties and obstacles is now gaining ground in all the circles concerned.

The financial and economic problems to be resolved have become increasingly serious. In some respects, they are overwhelming. At the present moment, they represent the most serious obstacle to reform. On the other hand, they are at the root of the scepticism surrounding the possibility of resolving the problems and of ensuring the development of the young generation.

The Romanian educational system is one of contradictions. In some respects it is comparable to the systems of the highly developed countries. The results are sometimes on a par with, or even better than those of other systems. But at the same time, it has to be recognised that the system functions in conditions of overworked pupils, unnecessary waste of energy, disproportionate efforts compared to results, and parallel structures which contribute to its inefficiency.

Despite the declared desire of the communist regime to set up a school which would prepare pupils for life, the Romanian education system is far from having achieved this goal.

The Romanian people are in the difficult situation of "reforming" at one and the same time their social (and personal) lives and the education which is the preparation for this life, that is to say, an education capable of giving young people the qualities and opportunities required for a normal life in society.

We consider that the sole fact of a critical awareness of the problems and obstacles to be overcome if the present reform is to be effective represents a source of optimism and hope which will be conducive to its implementation.

Note to the reader

The report concerning secondary education in Romania was drawn up at the end of 1992 and finalised in June 1993. To enable the reader of the report to grasp the present state of affairs, the author presents the most important aspects of the development of the educational reform – including the secondary sector – to date (March 1995).

In 1994, the Law on Education was discussed and approved by only one of the Houses of the bicameral Romanian parliament. That is why the law has not yet been definitively approved to date. The most sensitive problems concern the teaching of the ethnic minorities and private education.

At the end of 1994, the operational structures of the process of reform in secondary education (National Council for the Curriculum and for Teacher Training, Co-ordinating Commissions for the humanities and scientific subjects and working groups by subjects) became effective. The bill for educational reform , the financing of which is ensured by the intermediary of a loan granted by the World Bank (agreement negotiated as from 1992 and signed at the end of 1993), provides for the gradual drafting of reform programmes for the different school cycles. These study programmes, drafted by the working groups, represent the basis for the preparation of alternative textbooks which will be chosen, for each subject, by a jury of specialists in the subject. In the school year 1995-96 the first alternative school textbooks are going to be available for the pupils and the teachers for the first class in primary school. In 1996-97 the second set of alternative textbooks will be ready for the second primary class and for the first class in the gymnasium cycle (5th grade).

Technical and vocational education are being reformed at the moment with the support of the "phare" programme.

The year 1995 marks a special moment for Romanian society as it is both a pre-electoral year and the beginning of the last phase of large scale privatisation. The two houses in the Romanian Parliament have just adopted two variants of the Law to speed up privatisation in Romania. The final variant of the Law will be adopted by the Mediation Commission in Parliament, to enable its promulgation by the President of the Republic. The agreement

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signed with the World Bank provides for the main stages necessary for privatisation to take place on a large scale – distribution to the population of a new series of property titles, publication of lists of firms, and so on – to be carried out within a year. The immediate and long-term consequences of the process of large scale privatisation for Romanian society and for the educational system can only be glimpsed at the moment. It can only be hoped that the beneficial results expected at different levels and in different spheres of social life will have favourable implications for the development of the educational system.

The hopes associated with a more favourable distribution of National Income and an increased involvement of firms are the major source of support which society can give to the schools. Similarly, the new economic spirit, which is intended to be one of competitivity based on quality, will represent a model to be followed for schools as well.

The text of the report on secondary education in Romania deals with the conditions and the outlook for reform in education, as they appeared in 1993. The new law to be adopted on education will undoubtedly offer a clearer framework for efforts at reform, while being distinct from it. The author hopes that the presentation of the system of secondary education in Romania and the main lines for its reform will be considered a proof of a reform which is on-going.

Dakmara Georgescu

I. General presentation

1. Historical, social and political context

Defining the problem

The designation "secondary education" was used in Romanian education legislation prior to the second world war to indicate post-primary education – essentially the secondary schools – comprising two levels:

– lower, secondary level (gymnasium), from grades 5 to 8;
– upper secondary level (lyceum) from grades 9 to 12.

Thus the first year of secondary education was grade 5, and the eighth year, grade 12. Secondary education also included vocational training schools and other specialist forms of upper secondary education (industrial, commercial, etc.).

The new Public Education Act of 1948, which introduced socialist reforms into the Romanian school system, abandoned the term "secondary education", but retained the terms "gymnasium" and "lyceum". Thus, up to the present day, the Romanian system has comprised "general compulsory schooling" (free of charge) lasting seven, eight or ten years (varying according to the legal stipulations of the period), and "secondary education", which pupils could enter after obtaining the general school leaving certificate. "Secondary school" in Romania thus consisted of lyceum studies (academic or technical) and vocational training leading either to a baccalaureate or to an intermediate vocational qualification.

Today, there is a strong trend towards reintroducing the term secondary education into school legislation and to include therein the sub-system of secondary education which has two levels:

– the first level (gymnasium) (ages 10/11 to ages 14/15) (lower secondary);
– the second level (lyceum or vocational training leading to a baccalaureate or an intermediate vocational certificate (ages 14/15 to 18/19) (upper secondary).

The most recent education bill submitted for public discussion at the end of 1992[1] defined secondary education by reference to the structure below:

– gymnasium (grades 5 to 8);
– lyceum (grades 9 to 12/13);
– vocational and further education (apprenticeships), lasting from one to three years.

A structure of this type would be the legal embodiment of an existing situation; after 1989 optional subjects were introduced, including for those in grades 5 to 8, making it possible for all pupils to branch out at a fairly early age from the standardised curriculum with a programme common to all children.

Short historical overview of the development of secondary education from the nineteenth century to 1989

Romania is a European country with territory of 237 000 square kilometres and a population of approximately 23 million inhabitants. Its history has been extremely turbulent. The Romanians, a people of Latin origin, surrounded by Slavs and Finno-Hungarians, have historically had difficulty in defending their country's independence and achieving a unified Romanian state. The three large empires which are its neighbours – Turkey, Russia and Austria – have had a powerful, mainly negative, influence on the spiritual and material growth of the Romanians, resulting in somewhat slower development. It must be said, however, that these empires have had a measure of positive influence in such fields as art, religion, urban planning and even education.

Romania declared its independence from the Turkish Ottoman Empire in 1877 and was officially recognised in 1878, following the 1877-78 war.

Between 1881 and 1947, Romania was a constitutional monarchy (except for the period of royal dictatorship from 1938-40 and the military dictatorship of Ion Antonescu's wartime regime). Following the second world war it fell under Soviet control, becoming, like the rest of the East European bloc, a country where the construction of a "socialist society" was undertaken, based on the principles of a classless society (communism).

It goes without saying that this turbulent history was bound to mark the development of the educational system. In fact, there was no homogeneous development of Romanian education at all until after 1918. Whatever the influences may have been, there were two distinct areas affected by them:

1. Education Bill, Chapter IV – Section II

– the Germano-Austrian sphere of influence (Transylvania, Banat and Bukovina) and
– the French sphere (the "old kingdom" of Moldavia and Wallachia).

The difference between Germano-Austrian influence and French influence was primarily evident in the structure and content of education which reproduced the degree of political and cultural dependence of these areas in relation to the European powers of the time. If, on the one hand, in the "old kingdom" the French influence was the outcome of study visits to France, which led to the intellectual formation, presumably by choice, of the majority of the Romanian intelligentsia, on the other hand , the Germano-Austrian influence in Transylvania, Banat and Bukovina was due to the direct political dependence of these historical provinces of the Austrian Empire and later the Austro-Hungarian Empire. The disappearance of the Austro-Hungarian Empire did not however have dramatic consequences on the development of Romanian education, thanks to the educational reforms initiated in the Old Kingdom at the end of the nineteenth century. These reforms enabled the fairly easy unification after 1918 of the educational system which before the first world war already presented somewhat similar features in the various Romanian provinces (for example as far as the structure and content of secondary education was concerned). However, there was undeniably a degree of pre-eminence of the Germano-Austrian influence (subjects, seriousness, depth). At the end of the nineteenth century an increasing number of Romanian intellectuals were studying in Austria or in Germany, which counter-balanced the influence of the French and German influence on Romanian education at the start of the twentieth century.

The first legislation concerned with public education in the National Romanian State was issued in March 1864, introducing for the first time a three-tiered system of education (primary, secondary, higher).

During the period between the proclamation of Romanian independence (1877) and the end of the second world war (1945) several laws changed the configuration of the Romanian educational system, particularly at secondary level.

One of the most important was the Secondary and Higher Education Act of 1898, followed the next year by the Vocational Education Act, both the work of the great Romanian pioneer of reform, Spiru Haret. The law recommended that classical, modern and scientific courses be included in upper education.

Secondary education at lyceum level was divided into lower and upper cycles, a structure that remained until the second world war (lyceum classes 1-8).

In Banat and Transylvania, the Apponyi Act of 1907 restricted the education of resident ethnic groups in their mother tongue, forcing these pupils to study in Hungarian, especially at secondary level.

Under the ministry of Ion Petrovici in 1928, a new secondary education act required for a short period a compulsory entrance examination to the upper level of secondary school (before the fifth year of secondary). At the same time, the upper secondary cycle was reduced from four to three years in length (4 + 3). The 4 + 4 formula for secondary education in the lyceum was reintroduced to Romania under the 1934 Secondary Education Act.

In addition to the academic gymnasia and lycea, the secondary education structure included schools specialising in industrial studies (4 + 4), commercial studies (4 + 4) and specialised industrial schools (2 years).

In 1939, under the ministry of Petre Andrei, the Organisation and Functioning Order for academic secondary schools introduced two options for graduation from secondary school:

a. gymnasium (4) + lyceum (3) -----> certificate
b. gymnasium (4) + lyceum (4) -----> diploma

The last significant piece of legislation of the pre-socialist period 1942-43 (under the ministry of Ion Petrovici) set out to promote and disseminate science and art through secondary education, in response to the criticism at that time of the overly theoretical and elitist nature of lyceum education.

Nevertheless, it should be pointed out that by the end of the war, and despite criticism of the failings of the Romanian system of secondary education, there was considerable diversification of curricula, and to this is due the in-depth general and specialised education of the pre-war generations (academic lycea, teacher training schools, theological seminaries, industrial, commercial and agricultural schools), a diversification which was already mentioned in the Secondary and Higher Education Act of 1898, and the 1899 Vocational Education Act.

Throughout the pre-socialist period, it can be observed that those in power are constantly concerned with ensuring an optimal structure and efficiency to secondary education, which, besides, explains its relative instability and the fairly frequent changes concerning the duration, profiles, etc.

The Socialist period (1947-89)

The year 1948 was to bring destructive changes (especially at secondary level), set out in the Education System Reform Act and imposed by Soviet advisers who held key posts in every ministry.

In this process of "destruction" of Romanian education, two distinct periods can be distinguished:

– 1948-55, when Soviet influence was strongly felt (these destructive reforms mainly affected educational content), and

– 1974-79, when "directives" issued by the Secretary General of the Romanian Communist Party, Nicolae Ceausescu, abolished the academic lycea in particular, replacing them on a large scale by industrial schools whose main purpose was to train "highly skilled" workers (these destructive reforms primarily affected the structure of the education system).

The educational reform of 1948, which also made the secular and "materialist-scientific" nature of educational content obligatory and handed over control of the entire school system to the state (all private schools were banned), reduced the pre-war eight-year secondary school to seven years (grades 5 to 11). This reduction in the length of secondary education in the lyceum was reinforced in 1951, for a short period, by the introduction of secondary education for six years (grades 5 to 10) along the lines of the Soviet model. The only thing salvaged from the former lyceum structure was the academic lyceum, while industrial, commercial and agricultural schools continued to disappear, with the consequence that vocational and technical education was almost non-existent until 1968.

At that point the lyceum still enjoyed considerable prestige in Romanian society, a prestige which was to be seriously undermined after 1968 and particularly after 1974.

During the academic year 1948-49 the structure of secondary education was as follows:

The pedagogical lycea (teacher training colleges)	2 410 pupils
The academic lycea (theoretical)	11 495 pupils
Vocational and apprentice schools	6 058 pupils
Technical and post-lyceum specialisation schools	7 329 pupils

Moreover, in academic legislation the distinction between "primary" and "secondary" education was abolished and replaced by the following distinctions:

a. General education:

– primary (grades 1 to IV) and compulsory education;
– gymnasium education (grades V to VIII or X in 1968).

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b. Lyceum or vocational education:

During the 1958-59 academic year, the seventh year of general studies became compulsory and was generalised. Then, as from 1968, the length of general and compulsory education was raised to eight years.

The new Education Act of 1968 brought with it further structural innovations, which had long-term effects at several levels:

– the length of general compulsory schooling was increased to ten years – a period during which pupils were offered a common core (or almost so) of subjects, selected in such a way as to facilitate student guidance into a wide variety of careers after the 10th grade. The common core offered them equal chances of success, because during the ten years of compulsory schooling there was no streaming in education, the "common core" signifying that pupils were all subject to the same education at least as far as the curriculum/syllabus was concerned. The guidance of students towards various paths at a later stage (either higher studies, or a career) was based on their own free choice depending on their academic results, their talents, aptitudes and desires. In reality, in most cases the students chose technical education or an apprenticeship after having failed the entrance examination to the lyceum;

– the starting age for primary school was dropped to six years;

– in parallel to the academic lycea, intermediate vocational schools were created in order to train skilled workers.

The industrial and specialised schools, which had been abolished in 1948, were therefore re-established by setting up agro-industrial schools (1968-69: 1 145 pupils), the economic schools (same year: 1 769 pupils), and the health service schools (1971-72: 87 pupils). As from the academic year 1956-57, schools for foremen were also functioning. From 1957-58 until 1973-74 there were also post-lyceum pedagogical institutes which in two years trained teachers for pre-primary and primary schools.

The new Education Act of December 1978 legitimised the numerous innovations introduced after 1973, which resulted in the following restructured national educational system:

– General compulsory education lasting ten years (ages 6-16), comprising:

  – a primary cycle (grades 1 to 4);

  – a gymnasium cycle (grades 5 to 8) in which the pupils were taught by several teachers (each of whom taught a specific subject in contrast to the primary situation where one teacher taught all the subjects (apart from foreign languages: from grades 2 to 4);

– the first cycle of the lyceum (grades 9 to 10), which also constituted the lower secondary cycle;

– secondary education proper, including the structure following grade 10 (academic/industrial, teacher training schools, etc.).

As early as 1974, admission to the lyceum (9th grade) was based on a competitive entry examination to the first cycle, followed at the end of the 10th grade by a second competitive examination which opened the way to secondary education properly speaking. In each case, the examination consisted of two or three written papers and one or two practical examinations, depending on the type of lyceum. There was also a possibility of changing the type of lyceum after the 10th grade by the intermediary of qualifying examinations which preceded the examination specifically for accession to the 11th grade.

In fact, lyceum education was provided by means of a broad range of different establishments offering studies in industry and agro-industry, forestry, economics, administrative law, medicine, mathematics/physics, chemistry, biology, education, philology, history, art, etc. – offering a total of twenty-nine special subjects.

The restructuring of the educational system by the 1978 law reinforced further the position of the industrial and specialised schools at the expense of that of the academic lycea ("broken up" into lyceums of mathematics and physics, natural sciences and philology and history).

The reasons for this measure were fairly complex:

– the population explosion which ensued after abortion was forbidden in 1966-67 (in 1978 the number of gymnasium pupils had already risen to 526 923, whereas in 1966 it was 368 708). President Ceausescu's idea was that the growth in numbers in school was one of the main instruments for ensuring the training of the highly skilled manpower required for the take-off of the socialist economy;

– the principal of the "close link" between education and training, on the one hand, and life and production on the other;

– the tendency to demonstrate the superiority of the educational system in Romania in the socialist period, in which, in keeping with the official statistical data, in 1972-73, 91% of the school generation were already enrolled in the ten-year general education cycle and the number of pupils in the lycea was ten times higher than in the academic year 1938-39;

– the tendency to reduce the role of intellectual training which was in keeping with the policy advocated by the socialist regimes to restrict the role of intellectuals in society.

Thus, in 1974-75 the numerical relationship between the numbers in the (academic) lycea of the humanities and the specialised lycea was 0,4/1 in favour of the industrial lycea, and the agricultural and forestry and other specialised lycea.

Until 1990, a policy of gradually making the second lyceum cycle general, turning it into an extension of general compulsory education to include twelve years of study, was advocated.

This was yet another example of the megalomania of the Ceausescu dictatorship, running counter to all social reality and the finding of psycho-pedagogical research concerning the statistical breakdown of the achievement potential of different segments of the population.

The compulsory nature of the ten-year general education course and the promise of an easily obtainable baccalaureate degree that was little more than a formality served to devalue the status of students and teachers, and led to a dangerous increase in school drop-outs and functional illiteracy. Thus, the statistical data for this period do not give a realistic picture of the situation of Romanian education. The schools had to "ensure" that "almost all" the school population passed, "failing at school" and "dropping out" being considered incompatible with the role of the school in training the labour force. This is why the schools reported false data concerning educational "success". The general policy of falsifying reality was primarily imposed on the educational system as it was a question of national pride to constantly report that the school population in Romania was capable of superior performances.

Outline of the political and social structure after 1989

Since the bloody revolution of 1989, Romania has gone through an extremely difficult period characterised by great instability in almost all social sub-systems, including education.

After December 1989, the political arena became a boxing ring for nearly two hundred political parties representing a vast range of tendencies ranging from the extreme right to the extreme left. After nearly half a century of totalitarian rule, under which the single party system and so-called "socialist democracy" had turned the democratic principles of government into demagoguery and a sham, political passions exploded with a vengeance.

The major political forces that established themselves after 1989 were either parties with roots in historically important pre-second world war parties (like the National Farmers' Christian Democrat Party, the National Liberal Party, and the Social Democrat Party), or social-democrat or even socialist parties

(some, such as the Socialist Workers' Party, carrying on the work of the former Romanian Communist Party, in a modified form).

The greatly fragmented activity of the political parties, owing to the political amateurism and grandiose ambitions of a large number of public figures, and to the inadequate political and civic education of a large majority of the Romanian people, explain the results of the country's first free elections held in May 1990. The National Salvation Front (NSF) became the majority parliamentary party, polling 67% of all votes cast. The parliamentary opposition consisted of the so-called historical and nationalist parties (such as the Democratic Union of Romanian Hungarians). There was neither a balanced political situation nor the promise of political stability in the future. A number of subsequent events (such as the recurring violence on the part of the miners in Bucharest) demonstrated that the transition towards a democratic society was far from complete in Romania, and would be far more difficult than originally thought. Hopes of a swift transition to a democratic society were shown to be unrealistic. We must remember that Romania had been one of the most totalitarian societies in the entire European communist system, and that democratic changes had been introduced much later there than elsewhere in eastern Europe, and had been imposed upon it suddenly, not gradually.

Most of the parliamentary and extra-parliamentary opposition parties joined together in 1991 in a coalition called the "democratic convention" – CD – which won the majority of seats in many cities including Bucharest in the February 1992 local elections, and similar results in rural areas (especially in the historical regions of Banat and Transylvania). This was one of the first conclusive victories of the united opposition.

Prior to the new legislative elections in September 1992, several political parties splintered, for example, the National Salvation Front, which split into two rival factions (the National Salvation Front – FSN, which in 1993 became the National Democratic Salvation Front – FDSN), and the solidarity of the parties making up the Democratic Convention – the most powerful opposition force – was shattered by the break-up of the National Liberal Party, the second largest parliamentary opposition force after May 1990 (bearing in mind that the Democratic Union of Romanian Hungarians is a party based essentially on ethnic principles. Another powerful party in the Democratic Convention (the Civic Alliance Party – CAP) also underwent a process of political clarification consisting in confrontations between three tendencies: civic-liberal, neo-liberal and Christian Democrat.

The Romanian political chess board has been even further complicated by the increasingly active presence of parties promoting a nationalist political platform (like the "Greater Romania" Party – GRP and the National Union

of Romanians Party – NURP) or parties with a populist-socialist platform, like the Socialist Labour Party which is regarded by a large part of Romanian public opinion as the direct heir of the former Romanian Communist Party.

Despite the predictions of public opinion polls, according to which the growing popularity of the Democratic Convention (whose most active parties are the National Farmers' Christian and Democrat Party and the Civic Alliance Party) should have propelled it to electoral victory, the parliamentary majority returned to the National Democratic Salvation Front (28% of votes cast), a party that declares itself social-democrat, centre-left, and which provided the most important political support to the candidacy of the president-elect of the Republic.

The Democratic Convention arrived in second place with 19% of the vote, forming a relatively strong parliamentary opposition alongside other centre-right parties (over 40% of seats in parliament).

The parliamentary balance can be considered fragile, because the majority coalition (more than 51% of the seats) is represented by the National Democratic Salvation Front – FDSN, and by three other parties (PRG, PUNR and PSM), of which the orientation, at times extremist-nationalist or populist, on the left or the right of the various party leaders, makes the process of co-operation between these political forces difficult. Moreover one can see the endeavours of the National Democratic Salvation Front – the governing party – to reinforce the stability of the majority parliamentary coalition by accepting the appointment of representatives from allied parties to various ministerial posts.

The results of the latest legislative elections showed that Romanian society, particularly in rural areas (53% of the Romanian population live in towns – although the majority of them are the first generation to do so – and 47% live in the country) is ill-prepared for such radical changes as privatisation, the switch to a market economy, or the application of democratic principles to political and social life.

The position of the main political parties in relation to education is rather difficult to grasp despite the declarations in their electoral manifestos. One could perhaps get a better grasp of these positions by interpreting the attitudes and public reactions of the parties in relation to the concrete problems in education or to the initiatives for reform.

It is almost impossible to read a party manifesto without finding references to problems in teaching and education. The manifestos frequently include projects for educational reform, which are eclectic and inadequately worked out.

Concrete action has, however, been taken in this respect, *inter alia* in the draft education legislation put forward by such parties as the National Farmers' Christian and Democrat Party, the National Salvation Front and the Democratic National Salvation Front, as well as some unions which have associated themselves with the political ideals of one or other party.

While differences of opinion between the political parties are virtually irreconcilable in some other areas (such as the economy and the national problem), curiously enough, when it comes to education, there seems to be something of a national consensus on a few basic principles considered necessary to conceive a far-reaching reform of the Romanian system of education:

– the approval of education as a national priority;

– privatisation of schools and relaxation of state authority (decentralisation of the education system);

– gearing of education to modern values and reconciling and balancing secular and religious values (the latter recently having made a reappearance in the classroom after fifty years of secularisation);

– emphasising the importance of national and religious traditions;

– European-mindedness in Romanian education;

– definition of educational objectives and structures conducive to the shaping of complex, independent and free-thinking personalities who are able to take an active part in society and act as responsible citizens, respecting universal human rights.

However the points of view of the political parties could be more subtle particularly as far as their specific approach to one or other major aspect of the educational reform being considered is concerned.

Thus, one of the most coherent political reforms as far as education is concerned is that of the PAC. It opts for the reorganisation of teaching on a moral and democratic basis with a view to encouraging the maximum development of the training potential of the pupils, in particular by ensuring the stimulation of gifted pupils. The main tools to achieve these aims would be:

– to set up a pluralist system of education (public, private and religious education);

– to vary the educational offer and to individualise teaching (adapting supply to the requirements by re-organising the syllabus, introducing optional subjects and modules);

– ensuring the participatory nature of education;

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– decentralising teaching tasks and the administration of education;

– enhancing the civic and cultural dimensions of education;

– training in the skills required for action in the market economy;

– ensuring equality of opportunity in education (but not equality of outcome);

– decentralising the financial resourcing of education;

– increasing the influence of educational agents on the overall structural reform of society.

A position relatively close to that outlined above is represented by the choices of the Liberal Party (which in May 1993 became the '93 Liberal Party) in favour of the following measures:

– depoliticising education;

– legitimising private and denominational education;

– the introduction of honest criteria for evaluation;

– stimulating the spirit of initiative, competition and creativity which is appropriate for members of a liberal society.

One can also perceive very different choices, even diametrically opposed ones, in the positions of the nationalist parties and those of the minorities. The parties of the minorities (in particular the UDHR) stress the need for an autonomous or quasi-autonomous education in the mother-tongue even in higher education, while the nationalist parties advocate state control, for example, over the teaching of minorities.

The parties which are more populist in tendency (like the FDSN, the PST the PUNR, the PDAR – the Democratic Romanian Agrarian Party) stress equality of opportunity, but insist primarily on the need to train the labour force under state control. They support the maintaining of the industrial lycea in the secondary system of education and even their subordination to their respective ministries (for example, the subordination of the agricultural or agro-industrial lycea to the Ministry of Agriculture).

Despite endeavours to identify and to define the most pressing aspects of educational reform in Romania, by the political parties, but also and primarily by other actors like the trade unions, the teachers' professional associations, the parents' and pupils' associations, the research institutes, and the Church, one cannot yet speak of a coherent educational policy assumed with maximum responsibility by any political force whatsoever, a fact which is moreover also noted in the "White Paper" on Romanian education,

drawn up by a group of specialists in the Institute of Education at the beginning of 1993.

The serious problems of a political, social and economic nature (inflation, rise in unemployment), which inevitably attract the attention of the politicians in the first instance, as much as that of the other actors interested in educational reform, still prevent the drafting of this type of educational policy without which we continue to improvise.

Legislative framework

Romanian education (including secondary education) has functioned as from 1989 in a *sui generis* legislative framework: the old 1978 Law on Education has not yet been replaced by a new law, but the majority of the stipulations of the old law have fallen into disuse in the new socio-political conditions.

During the transition period from 1989 to 1992, several education bills were put forward for discussion: the pre-university education bill, the preliminary education bill (preparing the actual bill), and the higher education bill, drafted by the Ministry of Education and Science (which became the Ministry of Education following the 1992 legislative elections, the Department of Science became a ministry in its own right, while the old Department of Science became, in turn, an independent ministry, with the task of co-ordinating the scientific sphere alone).

Parliament has not yet passed the new education act. It was in November 1992 that the Ministry of Education tabled the corresponding bill, the text having been drafted and finalised by the Commission for Science and Education of the Chamber of Deputies, the lower house of the Romanian Parliament.

The Ministry of Education will examine all proposals and criticisms concerning this bill through the agency of an *ad hoc* commission. 3 114 proposals have been recorded emanating from teachers, parents, researchers, and academics, which have been taken into consideration in the final draft of the Bill by the Parliamentary Commission for Education. At the same time, the Commission also considered the proposals in three alternative projects put forward by the National Convention for Educational Reform, the Federation of autonomous trade unions in pre-university education in Romania and a private individual – an engineer suggesting "a new educational system".

Romanian education has in fact functioned since 1989 according to the provision of the old 1978 Education Act, since amended by several Romanian Government Orders and Decisions, the most important of which (dated 12

May 1990) concerns the organisation and functioning of education during the transition period pending adoption of the new act. The former Education Act still in force was similarly amended by several orders issued by the Ministry of Education and Science.

These decisions have been renewed annually depending on new conditions. Thus, the Ministry for Education has already drawn up the decree for the functioning of Romanian education for the school year 1993-94, taking into consideration the possibility that the law may not be adopted until the end of 1993.

The Romanian Constitution, adopted in November 1991, is for the time being the only basic legislation concerning education to have been drafted and adopted since 1989.

Article 32 (the right to education) sets forth the various forms of education (general compulsory education, secondary, vocational and higher education and other forms); the languages of instruction in Romania (Romanian or another internationally recognised modern language, and for other ethnic groups, the right to study in their native languages, under conditions provided for in the law); the free nature of state education; the legality of private education; the independence of the universities; freedom of religious instruction and the guarantee of obtaining religious instruction in state schools.

It should be added that as regards the legislative context, the actual development of Romanian education since 1989 has moved far faster than the legislative process. Therefore, during the transitional period from 1989 to 1992, there were numerous developments that went beyond the existing legal framework, which is fast becoming obsolete (for example, the opening of private nursery schools and universities, the introduction of religious instruction into general education, structural modifications such as the abolition of the two levels of lyceum and the qualifying examination required for entry to the second level, the independence of universities, changes to the status of teachers, etc.). It could be said that the precariousness of the legislative framework has been offset by the effectiveness of the actual reform process.

As in other eastern European countries, there has been lengthy debate in Romania about the relationship between the reform process and the drafting of the Education Act. It was first felt that it would be possible to bring about a basic metamorphosis in the Romanian education system in a fairly short period of time. However, as early as December 1990, at the National Symposium on education reform held in Bucharest by the Institute of Educational Sciences, doubts were voiced that this process could be carried out

in anything less than five years – and these doubts have proved to be well-founded.

Today, at a conservative estimate, it will take at least ten years to set up the basic groundwork required for a genuine and sweeping reform of the Romanian system of education.

2. Structural characteristics

A few preliminary considerations

The structure of Romanian education (especially at secondary level) has undergone numerous changes (see previous chapter), some of which have had a dramatic impact on entire generations.

The presidential decree of 1967 concerning demographic problems stipulated that every woman must have at least four children, and made abortion and birth control illegal. As a result, the birth rate, which reached a peak in the seventies, carrying over into the early eighties, soared dramatically (by an average of some 19-20%), concentrated primarily in the country's poorest regions. The first generation born of this policy in 1967-68, entered school at the age of six in 1974, and left secondary school in 1986, flooding the job market and institutes of higher education.

The "population explosion" of 1967-68, while already showing signs of abating in the seventies, had very serious repercussions on the educational system (among others), resulting in the overcrowding of schools, universities and the job market, and the increasingly visible tendency to sacrifice quality to quantity (teachers were virtually obliged to pass all their pupils automatically, regardless of their scholastic achievement).

Another negative side-effect has been that the student/teacher ratio in secondary education has remained – and is still – one of the highest in Europe:

– 1975: 22;
– 1987: 43.

In the context of the economic recession of the eighties, and with construction subsidies for school buildings reduced, it has become almost a "tradition" to give repeat classes or even series of classes (three or four a day in the same school); an average class comprises 30-40 pupils and what should be a one-hour class is inevitably reduced to 35-45 minutes. According to the statistical data of the Ministry of Education for the academic year 1992-93, this is the situation in 914 schools and for 40% of the pupils in rural areas.

The first measure taken by the Ministry of Education and Science after 1989, aimed at the standardisation of the educational process (including a reduc-

tion in the number of students per class to 20-22) failed, owing to a lack of classroom space and qualified staff.

Moreover, state expenditure per student came to under $200 in 1987, in conditions where spending on education represented 3,5% of total GNP in 1975, and only 2,1% in 1988. Within the structure of public expenditure on social and cultural activities in 1991, education accounted for 38,5%, while 31,9% was allotted to health, a meagre 1,5% going to culture. In 1991, social and cultural activities accounted for 33,4% of the national budget.

Characteristics and structure of secondary education

In discussions on educational reform in Romania since 1989, the overriding tendency has been to place the following under the heading of "secondary education":

- gymnasium education (lower secondary: grades 5 to 8);
- lyceum education (upper secondary: grades 9 to 12 or 13);
- vocational and further training and apprenticeships;
- technical education and training of foremen;
- specialised post-secondary education.

It should be remembered that education legislation and the structure of the school system before 1989 used the term "secondary education" to mean education after gymnasium level (at this time, the term "secondary education" itself was not clearly defined, as was pointed out in the previous chapter).

Moreover, the aforementioned 1992 Education Bill proposes a new legislative concept of secondary education, which would legitimise an existing situation.

The characteristics and structure of secondary education in Romania will be discussed from this angle, including the 4 + 4 + 4 structure proposed by this bill.

After 1989 there was also a strong movement towards implementing the 4 + 5 structure (up through grade 9) + 3 or 4, as proposed in the preliminary Education Bill (1991), which was, however, energetically voted down.

Before describing the structure of secondary education in Romania, we must once again emphasise the myriad difficulties involved in accurately defining its scope within the overall system of education.

For the 1992-93 academic year, which we shall use as a reference year for the description of Romanian secondary education, Government Decision

No. 345 of 22 June 1992 sets forth the following structure for the Romanian education system:

- Pre-primary education (nursery school);
- Primary education (grades 1 to 4);
- Secondary education at gymnasium (grades 5 to 8);
- Lyceum education (grades 9 to 12 or 13);
- Vocational education (1 to 3 or 1 to 4 years);
- Occupational training and apprenticeships (1 to 2 or 1 to 3 years);
- Technical training for foremen (1 to 2 or 1 to 3 years);
- Specialised post-secondary education (1 to 2 or 1 to 3 years);
- Short-cycle higher education (1 to 2 or 1 to 3 year colleges);
- Long-cycle higher education (up to 7 years);
- Post-graduate studies;
- Doctoral studies;
- Other forms of further education.

(See Figure 1: "The education system in Romania").

According to the structure shown in this diagram, we can speak of secondary education for levels 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8, which conflicts both with existing legislation and with the traditional concept of secondary education in Romania, where the term "designates the training that follows the eight years of basic general education," and "includes three major types of secondary school, of which only the first allows access to higher education" (according to C. Bîrzéa in "Curriculum changes in secondary schools in Romania", ISE, Bucharest, 1992).

Thus, we can speak of:

- "lower secondary education" (the gymnasium) which also constitutes the final stage of eight-year basic general education, reduced in 1989 from the ten years stipulated in the previous education act (the explanation for such an option stems from the differentiation of curricula already available at the gymnasium level by means of optional subjects (as discussed in the previous chapter).

These optional subjects in the gymnasium are:

- computer sciences and calculation techniques;
- laboratory techniques (biology, physics, chemistry);
- practical activities in the fields of: mechanics, electrical engineering, light industry and wood, agriculture and housework.

The enrolment of students in optional groups is done on the basis of their choices and their aptitudes, but the very existence of these groups depends on the facilities which the school can offer (materials, teaching staff).

– "upper secondary education" (secondary school proper), which includes lycea, vocational and further training, apprenticeships, technical schools and training for foremen, and post-lyceum education.

It is hoped that the introduction of differentiated training, including the common gymnasium core (5th to 8th grade) by the use of optional subjects will facilitate the orientation of pupils towards secondary education, thus contributing to the rise in the number of young people with a secondary qualification.

Lower secondary education (gymnasium) (7 110 schools, 26,9% of total school establishments)

As lower secondary education (first cycles) does not yet enjoy statutory status, we will merely cite the relevant proposals in the 1992 Education Bill;

– the provision of gymnasium education (day classes) in general schools or lycea for grades 5 to 8;

– exceptionally, night or correspondence classes can be held for over-age students;

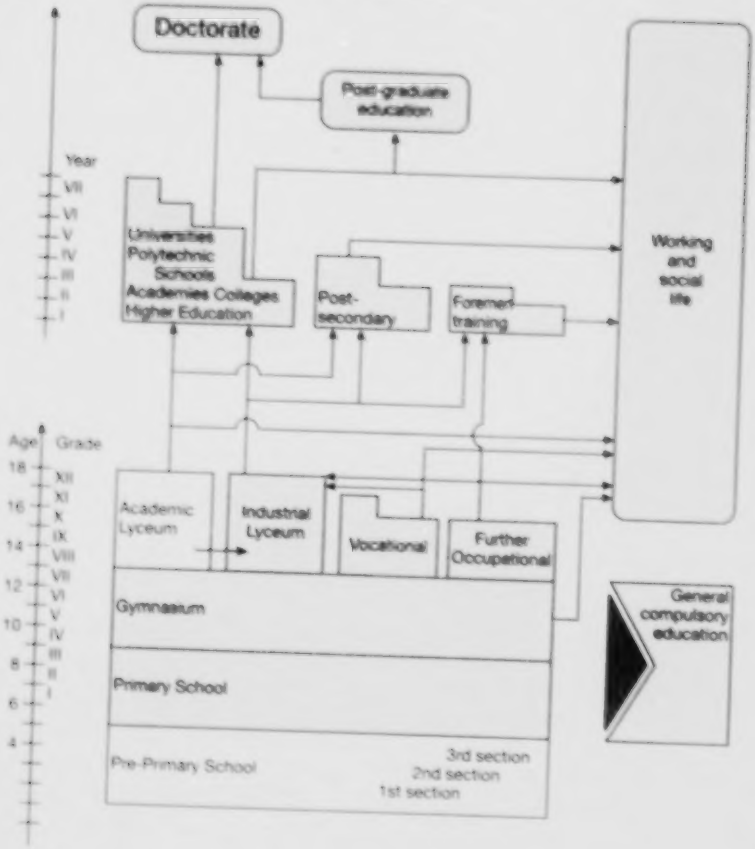
– a compulsory qualifying examination for 8th-grade pupils who receive a certificate if they pass.

The average class size is 30 pupils, but variations from 10 to 36 pupils per class are tolerated.

Individualised education is achieved through a choice of optional subjects and the possibility of special instruction for children with special skills or interests.

Moreover, pupils possessing skills in a range of fields may attend classes in specialised schools of music, art, choreography, physical education and sport. (This type of school has been functioning since 1949.)

Figure 1: The education system in Romania



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Upper secondary education

1. "Lyceum education" (1 209 schools, 4,2% of all school establishments in 1991-92)

1.1. Important changes since 1989

The lyceum has seen significant changes since 1989 in several respects:

– the division into two levels, with the first level comprising grades 9 and 10, and the second, grades 11 and 12, or 13, with a qualifying examination required for entry to the upper level, has been abolished (1990);

– a large number of industrial lycea have modified their curricula, and have reconverted to academic lycea;

– the baccalaureate examination has once again become stricter, while offering students a choice of optional subjects in addition to compulsory ones, according to their specialisation.

Since 1992 the baccalaureate has taken place along new lines which aim at an overall and complementary assessment of the knowledge and general development of the pupil at the end of secondary education in the lyceum. Candidates have to present five oral, written and practical exams depending on the profile of the lyceum attended (for pupils at schools in the languages of the nationalities there are additional exams in the mother tongue). Thus, the examination begins with the oral in Romanian language and literature (and in the mother tongue). Then, pupils have to sit an oral examination or practical examination by choosing a subject amongst the optional choices and/or which has not been chosen for the final written examination. The other papers are: Romanian language (a written examination in the mother tongue), the written examination in one of the subjects corresponding to the type of lyceum and the final written examination in one of the subjects chosen from a different set of subjects taught in the 12th grade.

Given the exceptional circumstances, during the academic year 1992-93 a special session of the baccalaureate will be organised for the previous series on the basis of the criteria and the methodology of the 1993 session.

This new format for the baccalaureate enables a choice and at the same time ensures a serious complementary education by reducing the tendency for pupils to become too one-sided – at the lyceum, they were already "specialising" in 2-3 subjects with a view to entering higher education. The baccalaureate represents the final examination at the lycea only. The successful candidates can sit the admission examination for higher education.

The juries are composed in the main of teachers from other schools, the president being a university professor. The subjects for the written examination are the same throughout the country and the subjects for the oral or practical examinations are proposed by the juries in each institution.

The baccalaureate does not automatically guarantee access to higher education. All the lycea prepare the baccalaureate, not only the academic lycea. In future there is a plan to differentiate the level of the baccalaureate depending on the type of lyceum attended. The pupils who do not have direct access to the baccalaureate are those who attend further or technical vocational schools. At present the rule is that the choice between sitting the "bac" or simply for a professional qualification is made at the end of compulsory schooling, that is at the end of the 8th grade.

1.2. Types of establishment (grades 9-12 or 13, day/evening):

- academic lycea;
- industrial lycea;
- agricultural lycea;
- forestry lycea;
- economic lycea;
- health service lycea;
- lycea for administrative studies;
- computer science lycea;
- art lycea;
- military lycea;
- teacher training schools (primary school teacher training. Since 1989, two-year teachers' colleges have been reintroduced, for training higher levels of teaching staff);
- theological seminaries (day or evening classes).

Evening classes and correspondence courses are only organised in a few lycea set up by district inspectors where there is the possibility of setting up classes for the pupils who have finished compulsory schooling or vocational or further training and who wish to continue their studies while working at the same time. These classes have the same curricula and the same teachers as the day courses, but the length of studies is extended by one year. The pupils have the right to sit the baccalaureate at the end of their studies, in exactly the same way as day pupils.

The lyceum is the only form of secondary education that provides entry to institutions of higher learning. Moreover, it has a dual aim: first, to prepare students to enter working life, and second, to enable them to pursue post-secondary or university studies.

If the pupils who have passed the baccalaureate do not continue their studies and if they have obtained some sort of professional qualification, in their active life they will be employed at an intermediary level of studies. Admission to the lyceum in the 9th grade is by examination.

The number of academic lycea increased dramatically post-1989, despite the proportion of industrial lycea, and offered two branches (science and the humanities), each featuring a broad range of classes (eg. in the humanities branch, classes in philology and history are offered; and the scientific branch includes maths, physics, chemistry and biology).

Opinions diverge widely as to the status and the profiles of the lyceum at the moment. There is evidence of considerable confrontation between the advocates of the industrial lycea and those who demand the disappearance of this type of school from secondary education, considering it a "hybrid", which in their eyes represents a somewhat unnatural mixture half-way between a general academic education and a vocational qualification. Moreover, in many ex-industrial lycea that changed their profile after 1989 one does encounter "industrial", "academic" and "physical education" classes which obviously makes it difficult to clearly establish the functions of the institution and hinders academic and vocational orientation.

Lyceum classes comprise an average of 30 pupils, but variations from 18 to 36 pupils per class are tolerated.

2. Vocational, occupational and apprentice schools

2.1. Important changes since 1989

Within vocational education in general, one of the most significant changes has been the setting-up of additional training in a context where general compulsory schooling had been reduced to eight years (with pupils leaving school at age 14), but where the minimum age for entering the working world has remained at sixteen, in accordance with international instruments. It is for this reason that the 1992 Education Bill advocates the extension of general compulsory education to age 16, which amounts to bringing back ten grades in schooling. Currently, this is one of the most controversial aspects of the structural reform of the educational system.

Since 1990, numerous criticisms have been made of the inefficiency and uselessness of this type of vocational training which does, in effect, represent, "a school for those who have been refused by other schools". The only reason for the existence of these schools is the need to ensure schooling to the age of 16 for pupils who have finished eight years of general and compulsory schooling but who are not continuing their studies at the lyceum or

a vocational school and yet cannot enter the world of work because they are below the legal age. Most definitely, this "hybrid" form will disappear in the near future.

Another important change has been to place vocational education under the primary control of the Ministry of Education and Science, like the industrial lycea, which had also been under dual control until 1989, but primarily under that of the Ministry of Training, and to a lesser degree the Ministry of Education. In addition, after an absence of nearly twenty years, post-secondary specialist schools have been reintroduced.

2.2. Types of establishment

2.2.1. Vocational education (717 schools accounting for 2,5% of all establishments in 1991-92)

Vocational schools feature a three- to four-year curriculum (day classes) and are organised by the Ministry of Education, through the agency of school inspectorates, ministries and vocational training departments, as well as through other local organisations or municipal bodies.

Vocational schools can operate as self-contained units or within school complexes, where several types of specialised education are brought together under a single administration: industrial lycea, technical training schools for foremen, and post-secondary specialist schools.

The range of specialisations for vocational schools is laid down by the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Employment and Social Protection.

In addition to vocational instruction, students also attend general education classes corresponding to the first two lyceum years (grades 9 and 10).

Admission is by examination following completion of the gymnasium course. Success in the leaving examination entitles students to a certificate of qualification in a given occupation.

The setting-up of a common core of general education, the simplifying of the types of training, the reduction and updating of the range of specialisations for vocational schools, and the disappearance of further training schools will probably be some of the major directions in the restructuring of secondary vocational education.

2.2.2. Occupational training and apprenticeship

a. Important changes since 1989

This sector is mainly the responsibility of local councils, in conjunction with business enterprises, which are authorised to organise schools and classes, subject to the approval of the Ministry of Education.

b. A brief description

Occupational training schools are described as "complementary" for two reasons:

– because they provide occupational training for students who have not been admitted to vocational schools;

– because they prepare pupils for occupations not included in the list of occupations for which training is given in vocational schools or industrial lycea.

Courses last two years, and are given either within school complexes, or in eight-year general schools (grades 1-8).

Average class size is thirty pupils, but variations from 18 to 36 pupils are tolerated.

The qualification certificate is obtained upon passing a graduation examination, and qualifies the holder to engage in an occupation mainly at local level (co-operation, services, etc.).

Current legislation allows students in vocational schools as well as further training schools to enter the lyceum on the basis of qualifying examinations (in lyceum grades 11 or 10 respectively).

The number of pupils in further training schools was:

1990-91	68 114 (99,7% in day classes)
1991-92	102 526 (90,9% in day classes)

We have already referred to the somewhat questionable effectiveness of these schools. They do not give satisfactory vocational training and they represent more of a social than a vocational solution for their pupils.

2.2.3. Technical training for foremen (172 schools making up 0,6% of total establishments)

This form of vocational education is provided in special technical schools for foremen. Courses last from one-and-a-half to two years (evening classes). They are organised by the ministries concerned, or by other central state organs.

The employment sectors and occupations prepared for are determined according to economic and industrial needs.

The Ministry of Education is also responsible for setting the standards for entrance and leaving examinations. Class size is similar to that of post-secondary school classes.

Technical schools can function within the framework of school complexes.

The diploma awarded after the final examination confers the right to engage in the chosen occupation, in accordance with the official nomenclature established by the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Employment and Social Protection.

3. Post-secondary specialised education (212 schools representing 0,7% of all establishments)

Post-secondary specialist schools, which in the past had an excellent reputation for training highly qualified intermediate personnel, but were eliminated from the school system some twenty years ago, have today been reinstated. These two- to three-year courses are open exclusively to holders of the baccalaureate. In the first instance the latter themselves choose whether they wish to continue their studies in higher education or in the post-lyceum schools. They can sit the admission examination to these schools after the entrance examination to the university, which gives candidates who are unsuccessful in entering higher education another chance. But many candidates choose the post-lycea school at the outset.

Specialisations are determined by the Ministry of Education and Science, based on proposals by the ministries, economic departments and other central state organs in the following fields: technical, economic, socio-cultural and health service (day or evening classes). They can function either within the framework of school complexes, or in the lyceum (an average of 30 students per class).

It should be mentioned that the current job market, which sometimes requires very rapid re-training, has given rise to a multitude of short-term, mostly post-secondary private schools (computer science, languages, management, secretarial, etc.). Some of these schools have managed to obtain accreditation from the Ministry of Education, plus official recognition of the diplomas they award. These courses are primarily organised by private firms (in computer science, secretarial-office management, etc.). They are financed by the fees paid by those attending.

The state is only partly involved in the financing of this type of course in the people's university, as an institutionalised form of adult education.

4. Other categories of schools

4.1. Schoolchildren's homes

Secondary schools are also attended by children living in children's homes (orphans, children without legal guardians, or children from broken homes), especially at the gymnasium level and in vocational and occupational schools. These schoolchildren's homes are run like boarding schools, acting

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as "homes" for the orphans or children from broken homes until they are eighteen. The criteria for entering these homes are primarily for family or social reasons. The children from these homes are taught either in the school belonging to the home, or in a neighbouring public school (which is the most usual case).

4.2. Special education

4.2.1. Special education is available for children with mental, motor or psychomotor handicaps, by the Ministry of Education and the Secretariat of State for the Disabled (hostels/schools).

These schools can take several forms:

– special vocational schools for students with auditory visual, mental, motor and psychomotor disabilities;

– special post-secondary lycea and schools for students with visual and motor disabilities;

– skills training and re-training courses for the disabled.

The projects for reform in this sphere aim primarily at eliminating institutional and administrative segregation between "normal" education and education for the "disabled". This segregation is intensified by the total subordination of special schools to the Ministry for the Disabled (State Secretariat) since 1989. In the interest of a homogeneous educational policy for the whole of the school population, it would be desirable if the Minister for Education were to take over co-ordination of these schools.

At the moment, almost 11% of the budget for education as allotted to the Ministry for the Disabled for the schooling of 58 000 children, 45 000 of whom are mentally disabled. Moreover, it is estimated that the relation between the amounts allotted to "normal" pupils and students and to the disabled is 1/11 at the lyceum and 1/8 at the university in favour of the disabled, whereas exceptionally gifted pupils, for example, do not benefit from any special support in the budget.

4.2.2. The primary function of the special schools for remedial education (which are also subordinate to the Ministry of the Interior) is to contribute to the schooling and "re-education" of under-age delinquents (below the age of eighteen) who cannot be imprisoned. Since 1989, delinquency has increased in Romania to the point that at present 45 243 delinquents are in prison, of which 3 508 are in schools for remedial education.

5. Support institutions (attached to the educational system)

5.1. Speech therapy centres for the treatment of speech defects *inter alia* in secondary schools) whose activities can take place in specialised facilities or normal classrooms.

5.2. Educational and vocational guidance centres

These centres are designed to offer children, parents and teachers advice and assistance regarding suitable procedures for choosing educational and career options.

These support institutions form part of an inter-school system placed under the authority of the local schools inspectorate.

Romania is in a rather difficult situation in the area of educational psychology, owing to the shortage of qualified personnel. University courses in educational psychology have not been offered for over ten years, and related subjects have been marginalised, resulting in strong demand for qualified educational psychologists in Romania today. For this reason, and with a view to making the best choices for the pupils, the work of these guidance centres in differentiating and individualising education has often been entrusted to the teachers in charge of the classes concerned.

We must add that even the Institute for Psychological and Educational Research (today, the Institute of Educational Sciences) was not operational for nearly ten years, having been abolished by order of the former President Ceausescu.

3. Concluding remarks

Out of a total school population of 4 600 000 pupils, 1 120 000 attend secondary school (excluding gymnasia in which in 1991-92, 2 608 914 pupils were recorded representing 54,6% of the total school population). They are divided among the three types of educational streams as follows:

a. lyceum (16,3% of the total pupils)	778 420 pupils
b. vocational schools	272 770 pupils
c. occupational schools	120 526 pupils
d. technical training for foremen	19 734 pupils

The last three streams include 9% of the total pupils.

The breakdown according to types of teaching (day, evening and correspondence courses) of this same school population is as follows:

	% pupils
Day classes	91
Evening classes	8
Correspondence courses	1

Compared with the situation prior to 1989, when vocational training made up 93% of all secondary education, and general education a mere 6,7% – compared with France, for example, with its 77% general education against

23% vocational training – today, a clear trend towards increasingly academic secondary education is observed. This trend is restoring general academic education, which had been greatly devalued over the past two decades, to its proper place.

Furthermore, since 1989, debate on the reform of the Romanian education system has revealed a strong desire for a return to the pre-war Romanian model of education, or even that of the late sixties and early seventies, when academic education still enjoyed a high status.

This marginalisation of academic studies is apparent when we compare the lyceum structure in Romania in 1975 and 1987:

	1975	1987
Secondary school population	1 091 000	1 592 000
General secondary education	29,00%	6,70%
Teacher training	2,18%	0,30%
Vocational training	68,00%	93,00%

The considerable fall in the number of secondary school pupils since 1987 (from approximately 1,6 million in 1987 to approximately 1,2 million in 1992) is primarily due to the fall in the birth rate which followed the "boom" in the years after 1967. In 1987, the so-called "Ceausescu" generation born after 1967-68 at the time when contraception was forbidden was still in secondary school. In the years after 1967 the birth rate fell immediately, which resulted in a significant fall in the numbers at school at the beginning of the 1980s. Another cause is the reduction in the decreased capacity of the educational system to retain the numbers at school in the new socio-economic conditions after 1989.

Administrative structure

The administrative structure of the secondary school system is still strongly centralised. Most schools are owned by the state, with the exception of denominational schools which are also financed by churches or religions and eight private lycea which function at present mainly in Bucharest but which are not accredited.

Private schools are still practically absent from the secondary except for a few private vocational schools, whose legal status remains unclear.

Section 105 of the 1992 Education Bill authorises private instruction at all levels providing that it conforms to the law. It also stipulates that no more than 60% of the budget of such schools can be derived from school taxes.

The Ministry of Education has already announced that all schools and faculties that so desire can become privatised.

Recently, (Spring, 1993) the bill which determines the conditions for accreditation of the private and state higher education institutions on the basis of unitary criteria and European standards has been tabled for public debate. The task will be entrusted to a higher university commission which will examine the teaching programmes, the teaching staff and the material conditions of the universities or faculties created after 1989. The bill proposes to offer the students in private faculties the possibility of sitting the final examinations in the state universities under conditions recognised publicly. The universities or faculties of which 50% of the students have passed the final examinations on three successive occasions will be accredited, which represents more than the mere right to exist. The students from private universities who pass the final examinations will have the same rights as those who obtain their diploma from a state university. The students from universities which are not accredited will be able to enrol in another private university if the latter agrees.

State education (including military and health-service colleges) is co-ordinated by the Ministry of Education. Vocational or special training schools do, however, also come under other ministries and departments, and are thus under dual state control. Moreover, the 1992 Education Bill authorises the Ministry of Education to co-ordinate and supervise (on an individual case basis), all forms of secondary education, including private schools in so far as the Ministry of Education remains the only institution entitled to grant diplomas.

The Ministry of Education co-ordinates the entire network of secondary education with the aid of district school inspectorates throughout the country.

Today, however, local authorities and schools are already autonomous with regard to staff, human, physical and financial resource management, the organisation of courses and administration of school facilities. The technical and administrative personnel is recruited freely by each establishment while the teaching staff is recruited with the agreement of the Inspectorate and the Ministry of Education. But it is not yet a question of a true and total autonomy either in the sphere of programmes of study (except for optional subjects), or in that of financial management, for the budget is still distributed "from the centre" to the establishments by the intermediary of the Inspectorate.

The new Department for Reform, Co-ordination, Management and Resources in the Ministry of Education, created in December 1992, has set

up, in partnership with the Institute of Educational Sciences and the World Bank, programmes and policies which represent the first steps in the restructuring and decentralisation of education. The Department has also framed the definitive regulations of the Inspectorate. General inspectors are to be appointed by the Minister of Education with the agreement of the local Prefecture.

The 1992 Bill calls for an even broader shift of administrative power to local authorities and businesses, particularly in the field of vocational training .

The question of how best to apportion administrative responsibilities is still under consideration.

The Ministry of Education is responsible for determining school curricula, and also for framing schools legislation (concerning school regulations), in conjunction with other central state organs. Through the work of qualified staff from the Department of Evaluation, it also performs a strong monitoring and supervisory task. In fact, school inspectorates today have been given more of an advisory role than in the past, when they had a more authoritarian and punitive function. However, since 1989, the school inspectorate has been entrusted with an advisory role rather than one of sanction or an authoritarian supervisory one.

The "White Paper" on education suggests that the decentralisation of the administration and management of education be implemented by:

– the delegation of responsibilities to lower levels (inspectorates, centres for teaching staff);

– increasing the autonomy and responsibility of the schools in particular for the use of resources;

– the creation of joint management bodies (representatives from local authorities, economic agents, parents, etc.). At the moment, local autonomy of teaching institutions is somewhat wishful thinking, an ideal rather than a reality.

II. Specific problems

1. Aims of secondary education

Secondary education prepares pupils to enter the working world, or to continue their studies in institutions of higher education. The educational ideal of the Romanian school system, especially as concerns secondary school, is the free, harmonious and all-round development of the individual, and the shaping of an independent and creative personality (Section 3 of the 1992 Education Bill). Accordingly, the main objectives of Romanian education are as follows:

– the development of the personality through the assimilation of national and world culture;

– education inspired by a respect for human rights, dignity and tolerance;

– open-mindedness towards world problems and moral values;

– the acquisition of humanist, scientific and technical knowledge, as well as the development of intellectual aptitudes, emotional expressiveness and practical skills;

– acquisition of and practice in the techniques of intellectual endeavour necessary for lifelong self-instruction;

– education for a European dimension.

Furthermore, the principles guiding the organisation and functioning of the education system must be based on respect for the democratic principles and values embodied in the Romanian Constitution (in accordance with Section 2 of the 1992 Education Bill).

The new conception of the aims of Romanian education conveys the desire to avoid narrow-minded specialisation, to inculcate general culture by promoting interdisciplinary relations and to replace over-specialised vocational training with a more flexible training, focusing on problem-solving, basic cognitive capacities and the potential for adapting to a society in transition.

2. Curricula and internal structures

Over the past two decades, the structure of lyceum curricula (which vary according to type of lyceum) was organised into three categories:

	%
General education (basic education)	56
Specialised subjects	14
Practical work	31

The lycea operated on a six-day schedule, and weeks of theoretical work were interspersed with weeks of practical work (the latter had already been considerably reduced by 1989).

In reality, practical training weeks were often a kind of holiday for pupils, and had a disruptive effect on school programmes.

Since 1989, secondary education has undergone significant changes at several levels, particularly with regard to the way curricula are designed and organised.

The new curricula aim to establish a new balance between general education, specialisations and vocational training. Thus, whatever the school, section or branch (academic, socio-humanities, economics or technology), pupils study subjects organised into five distinct areas:

Group	
A	Humanities and social sciences
B	Basic science
C	Physical education
D	Elective subjects
E	Education (represented by one hour per week when the class teacher discusses the problems concerning school activity and training for life with the pupils)

The relative importance of each group of disciplines varies, naturally, according to the branch and type of school concerned, but the importance of this new structure is that it is applied in all Romanian schools (see Appendix C).

Training by use of optional subjects has already been mentioned in relation to the gymnasium. The possibility of making them truly available in the lyceum also depends on the existence of qualified staff and of the respec-

tive availability of the pupils and the school management. They run the risk of becoming "patches to mend" the teachers' posts and at the same time representing a source of overwork for the pupils if the contents of the compulsory and optional subjects converge. On the other hand, they may become a valid tool for flexible and individualised training. There are not yet any relevant statistical data, but one can consider that they are mainly available in urban areas, given the fact that in rural areas there is an almost chronic lack of qualified staff.

For example, in lycea specialising in the humanities, group A makes up 60% to 70% of the total 30-hour weekly class schedule, while group B represents only 15% to 20%. Groups C, D and E appear in identical proportions in all branches.

However, elective subjects in group D are adapted to the specific school and branch (optional classes make up 10% of weekly courses in the lyceum – two or four hours a week according to class – and may vary according to the general focus of the section or branch (see Appendix C).

Elective subjects are designed to allow for the individualisation of instruction and the further study of pupils' preferred subjects. They therefore help to guide pupils' future educational and career choices.

For schools where minority languages are used for teaching, the core curriculum is supplemented by four to five hours a week devoted to the mother tongue (language and literature) in the humanities branch, or three hours a week in the scientific branch.

In vocational and technical instruction, the same structure is retained, with the exception of elective subjects, which are replaced by "specialised and vocational training" (representing 25% to 30% of the weekly timetable). Similarly, in these types of secondary schools, group A accounts for only 20% to 25% and group B, 15% to 20% of the timetable.

As mentioned above, elective subjects have been introduced at the gymnasium level as well.

The average secondary school week consists of thirty hours, five days a week. The academic year is divided into three terms (Term I – 14 weeks; Term II – 12 weeks; Term III – 8 weeks, a total of 34 weeks per school year).

The compression of the school week to five days, despite its beneficial effect of extending leisure time, has also had negative effects, particularly at gymnasium level, where the overcrowding of classrooms has resulted in "continuous" teaching, and the reduction of 60-minute classes to 35 or 45 minutes.

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The most important changes in curriculum content since 1989 have been the following:

– the elimination of Marxist ideology, political indoctrination, paramilitary instruction (as well as forced labour, or what was termed at the time "practical training");

– the introduction of subjects such as philosophy, economics, sociology, psychology, economy and civics (the latter beginning in 1992);

– the upgrading of the teaching of modern languages, which was rather marginalised under the Ceausescu regime (although Russian studies received the same importance as in other countries of central and eastern Europe). The first foreign language is taught from the 2nd grade of primary school, and a second language is introduced in the 6th grade, and some sections of the lyceum may add a third. There is a very wide choice (see Figure 2). It must also be pointed out that Romania has a number of lycea where classes are taught entirely or partially in a widely-used modern language (French, German, Spanish, Italian or English);

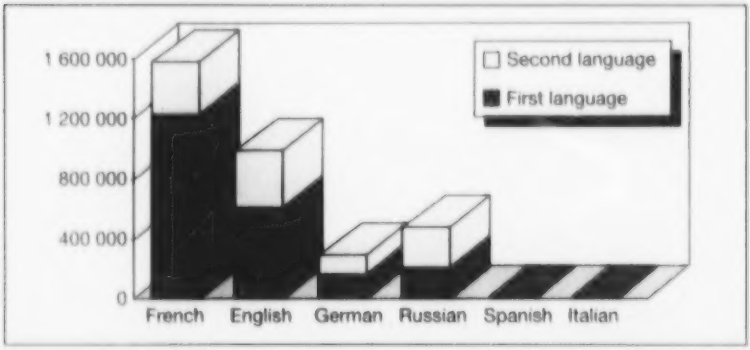
– the modification and updating of content: the Ministry of Education has been responsible for drawing up new curricula and supervising the preparation of new textbooks. Romanian educational reform is based on the concept of a profound and far-reaching renewal of curricula and textbooks (including the preparation of alternative textbooks), designed to orient education not only towards knowledge acquisition, but towards training in skills.

With regard to the internal organisation of schools, each establishment is presided by a school board comprising the head(s), representatives of the teaching staff, of the municipality (local council), parents, and – at lyceum level – the student body. Regrettably, the participation of representatives from outside the school remains somewhat formal.

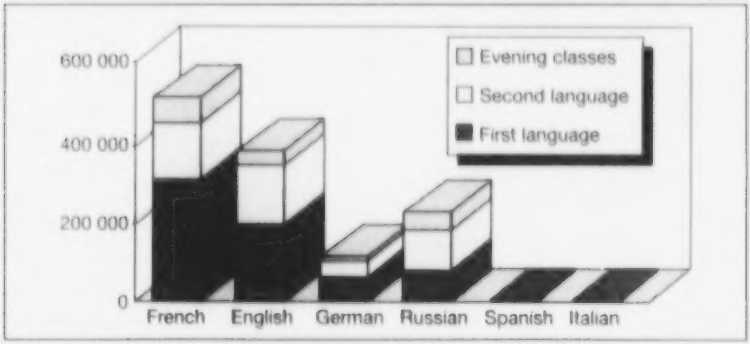
The activities of each school are carried out in accordance with the rules and regulations of that school which must be drawn up in accordance with existing education legislation and the decisions of the local authorities.

School activities are controlled and supervised by district inspectorates and the Ministry of Education.

Figure 2 – Pupil distribution (grades 2-8) according to modern language studied 1991-92



Lyceum pupil distribution according to modern language studied 1991-92



3. Education of ethnic minorities

The Romanian Constitution guarantees the right of national minorities to be educated in their mother tongue – a time-honoured tradition even under the communist regime.

Regions with residents belonging to national minorities have the full range of school facilities for them, including secondary level (lycea, teacher training and vocational schools). If for some reason a school cannot be opened, classes, sections or groups are organised where instruction is provided in the native languages of the minorities (see Figure 3). Thus there are schools in which the teaching is done entirely in the languages of the national minorities (in Hungarian or in German) and schools where the teaching is mainly

done in Romanian (with classes in Serbian, Turkish, Bulgarian, etc.) or even in German or Hungarian if it is a question, for example, of a vocational school or schools in regions where the respective populations are small in numbers. The guiding principle is not that of legal criteria granting minority groups the right to teaching in their own language, but that of the possibility to respond in terms of human resources (teachers) and material means (schools) to the real needs of the national minorities for teaching in their language.

Romanian language and literature are a compulsory part of the baccalaureate examination, and Romanian history and geography are taught in Romanian. In 1992, ethnic history and traditions were introduced as a compulsory part of the curriculum in these schools.

Examinations, and inter-school competitions – the "Olympics" – must be taken in the language of instruction, with candidates for higher education stating whether they wish to sit the examinations in the language in which they studied at school.

Official data do not give the results for pupils from the minorities as compared with Romanian pupils at the baccalaureate to university entrance examinations. On one hand, it would often be very difficult to establish whether it is a question of Romanian pupils and, on the other, it is considered that this would convey a segregationist attitude concerning the teaching of the national minorities. Indeed, the teaching of the national minorities is not thought of as a special form of Romanian education but as an education which affords pupils the chance of learning in their mother tongue and improving their knowledge of the culture and traditions specific to their nationality while at the same time offering the same opportunities for general or vocational training as to Romanian children (or, properly speaking, to children taught in Romanian).

Young people belonging to minority groups wishing to attend classes taught in Romanian are also given the opportunity to learn their native language.

The majority of minority schools are Hungarian (some 2 500 schools with approximately 200 000 pupils). There are also districts in which several national minority languages are taught (for example, in the Timis Department, 6% of the school population are taught in German, 4% in Hungarian, 10,4% in Serbian and others in Bulgarian and in Ukrainian.

During the eighties the Ceausescu regime limited upon minority rights by creating mixed schools (Romanian-Hungarian, Romanian-German, Romanian-Serb, etc.). After 1989 most schools reverted to their original structures as minority schools, eliminating the Romanian section. This separation process was occasionally violent and marked by political controversy.

However, the transition was usually made without serious incident. The chart of schools for minorities shows a noticeable decline in the number of German schools, owing to the mass emigration to Germany of this segment of the population. We also should add the relative lack of teachers for schools in German because of the massive emigration of German intellectuals in the last two decades.

Teaching in lycea has been subject to the following fluctuations since 1989:

	1989-90	1990-91	1991-92
Total	1 346 315	995 689	778 420
In Romanian	1 308 442	952 058	742 747
In Hungarian	33 555	41 367	33 447
In German	3 910	1 730	1 605
In other languages	408	530	621

(The fall in the number of pupils in the lycea in Hungarian or in German is primarily due to the fairly massive emigration after 1989).

Since 1989 it has been possible to study in one's mother tongue even in institutions of higher education (in Hungarian, for example, in some faculties in Transylvania) and it is hoped that in a few years the problem of the shortage of qualified teachers in these languages will be resolved. In 1992, a class taught in Romany was even introduced at the Bucharest teacher training college.

Children from gypsy families represent a category who have special problems with a fragile school situation: it is estimated that 19% of adult men and 27% of adult women are illiterate and that only 4,5% of adults have finished the lyceum. Only 50% of the children between seven and ten years go to school regularly. The gypsies represent at the moment the second ethnic minority, after the Hungarians (approximately 1 010 000 inhabitants – 4,6% of the population). At the last census in January 1992, many gypsies said they were of Romanian nationality, which led to an official result rather far from reality: 409 723 inhabitants (1,8% of the population).

The gypsy minority has moreover recorded one of the highest birth rates. According to the official data, between 1977 and 1993, the gypsy population increased by 80% while the average increase in the population was 5,6%. This "population explosion" is going to be a challenge to Romanian education to find the optimum means for educational and social integration of an ethnic minority very frequently marginalised of its own free will. We

must however make mention of the endeavours of some representatives of the gypsy intelligentsia to co-operate with the Romanian authorities to seek together the most efficient means of attracting the young generation to school.

Figure 3 – Education in the languages of ethnic minorities

Language of instruction	Total establishments/ Pupils	Nursery schools	Primary schools and gymnasium	Lyceum	Vocational schools	Post-lyceum school
Hungarian	2 428 22 2826	1 085 47 530	1 139 134 486	135 33 409	57 6 380	12 1 021
German	303 18 711	161 6 847	127 10 167	14 1 605		1 92
Serbian	42 1 535	16 476	24 575	1 275	1 209	
Slovak	38 1 409	10 325	26 918	2 166		
Ukrainian	11 542	7 310	3 140	1 92		
Czech	5 217	2 72	3 145			
Bulgarian	2 186	2 186				
Turkish	2 81	2 81				
Total	2 831 245 507	1 285 55 827	1 322 146 431	153 35 547	58 6 589	13 1 113

4. Teacher training and employment

Teachers in Romania are divided into three categories:

Pre-primary teachers	36 314	14.6
Primary teachers	56 938	22.8
Secondary teachers	156 149	62.6
Total	249 401	

The pre-primary teachers are employed in infant schools. To date the only requirement is to have a secondary education (academic lycea).

The figures concerning the teachers include the gymnasium teachers also who have completed either four to five years of university studies, or a shorter course of university studies (three years in the old teacher training schools). They usually only teach one subject, or two in the case of related subjects (mathematics/physics, Romanian language/foreign language, etc.).

From the above, we can see that the majority of teachers work in secondary schools (62,6%).

Until 1989, secondary school teachers were trained in a four- to five-year university course. Another training stream existed for gymnasium teachers, consisting of three-year programmes at teacher-training institutions. Graduates of these institutions also had the option of continuing their studies, following qualifying examinations, through four- to five-year correspondence courses given by the universities.

Since 1989 teacher-training arrangements have been as follows:

– teacher-training lycea and colleges which prepare pre-primary and primary school teachers;

– university programmes lasting four, five or six years for secondary school teachers.

Following the changes in the seventies, which resulted in the massive development of vocational and specialised secondary education, the teaching body was supplemented by engineers, foremen/instructors, and doctors (in lycea specialising in the health professions). In many vocational or specialised schools, even the head teachers were engineers.

Prior to Decrees No. 476 of 1983 and No. 451 of 1984, engineers were considered to have equivalent status to teachers, and were qualified to sit all higher occupational examinations. Following the publication of these decrees, they were officially transferred to the industrial sector, so that while they were still employed by the schools, it was the companies that paid their salary, as they were no longer considered to be teachers as such.

The Romanian Government's Decision of 12 May 1990 reinstated engineers as teachers, and they are paid in this capacity, like their fellow teachers, from the state budget, and have the same right to higher vocational training.

Throughout the decades of the communist era, the status of teachers was continually devalued – primarily through their extremely low salaries, but also by the obligation to participate in compulsory farm labour alongside

their pupils – and other measures designed to undermine the prestige of the teaching profession.

Even today, teachers' salaries remain rather low, although they have been increased several times since 1989 under pressure from the unions:

Basic salary after tax:

Entry-level salary	29 795 lei
End-of-career salary	38 760 lei (6-10 years' service) 41 045 lei (14-18 years' service) 44 699 lei (over 25 years' service)

The average monthly salary of a secondary-school teacher in Romania is roughly 38 000 lei, or approximately $80.

These averages, raised in April 1993 to 42 000 lei, apply to secondary schools (including the gymnasium), the salaries in primary schools being appreciably lower.

For the past three years, 80% of the teaching budget has been allotted to the payment of teachers' salaries, the rate of investment being insignificant thereafter. Salaries vary according to the number of years worked, the academic sector, the level taught, and the location of the school (urban/rural).

As an incentive to attract teachers to rural areas, their salaries were increased by 20% and teaching loads reduced to sixteen hours a week. However, according to the Ministry of Education, rural areas still suffer from a lack of qualified teaching staff, and most of these posts are filled by teachers with only secondary-school training (baccalaureate).

In pre-university teaching taken as a whole there is a shortfall of 32 000 teachers, the respective posts being occupied at the moment by unqualified teachers (12,27% of the total). In rural areas, 1 700 posts are filled by teachers with inadequate qualifications. Nevertheless, as a result of the heavy fall in the school population, it is expected that in a few years there will be unemployment amongst school staff. At the moment the most serious problem for teachers is that of "limited (restricted) activity", which means that a post is no longer "full-time", and that as a result a teacher has to be transferred to another establishment (or may become unemployed, because the fall in school population will have negative effects on the job market for teachers).

A shortage of teachers in subjects offering other career opportunities in addition to the pre-determined quota assigned to education (physics, chemistry, mathematics) is also observed.

There are several categories of teachers:

- established teachers (who can be seconded for any period);
- supply teachers;
- teachers paid on an hourly basis.

Of the total number of 260 394 teachers in post (in 1991-92), 36 311 (13,94%) were instructors, 55 036 (21,14%) primary teachers, 98 181 (37,69%) gymnasium teachers, 9 264 (3,56%)) teachers in special schools and children's homes and 44 017 (16,9%) lycea, technical and vocational teachers.

While the rate of pre-primary teachers, primary teachers and gymnasium teachers has remained almost constant since 1989, a significant rise in the number of teachers in children's homes and special education is observed (from 2,86% in 1989 to 3,56% in 1992) and of the numbers of secondary school teachers, from 15,31% in 1989 to 16,9% in 1992, which has had positive consequences for the pupil/teacher ratio in secondary schools: from 31/1 in 1989 to 9/1 in 1992.

Supply teachers and teachers paid by the hour occupy the 32 000 vacant posts referred to above. The majority of the teachers were therefore in permanent posts in 1990.

In vocational training, the teachers in the general culture subjects enjoy the same conditions of employment and pay as those in the academic lycea. The technical and specialised subjects are taught by teachers and instructors and/or engineers who, after 1989, regained a status of teacher comparable to the qualified teachers.

Posts are filled on the basis of competitive examinations.

Teachers must pass several examinations to advance in their careers:

- the "definitivat";
- the lower-level teacher training examination;
- the upper-level teacher training examination; or
- (when applicable) the doctoral examination, which under current legislation is equivalent to the upper-level teacher training examination.

Since 1989 the standard number of teaching hours per week has dropped to twenty-two to twenty-four hours in urban areas and sixteen hours in rural areas. A recent proposal from the Minister for Education aims at the introduction of the "Spiru Haret" order for outstanding teaching activity, which will be awarded to 6 000 teachers at all levels.

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5. The relationship between school and society

The school as a "model of society"

Following the events of 1989, political turmoil even made its way into the classroom. Political antagonisms strained the atmosphere in schools and created problems, especially when it came to elections to headships. For this reason the 1992 Education Bill clearly specifies that schools must be non-political (Section 12).

Changes in pupil status (such as the abolition of school uniforms) were intended to transform schools into places for the free development of the individual. There is still work to be done in this area, concerning, for example, the authoritarian relationship which still exists between teachers and pupils, and the high level of knowledge expected regardless of the level of skills actually taught by the schools, which also results in students being overworked.

However, through its newly devised entrance and baccalaureate examinations and procedures for evaluation, the Romanian education system has shed its pre-1989 reputation for formality and superficiality. Sound, well-balanced, properly evaluated education will prepare hard-working young people for successful careers in their chosen field.

"The school as community" is in most cases far from offering an ideal framework for the development of the pupils' personalities. Of the teaching institutions taken as a whole, forty-five were built between 1700-1800 and 1 690 between 1801-1900. As we have already said, in the majority of schools in urban areas teaching is done in two, three or four shifts per day, which prevents the supervising of pupils during the breaks. Thus worrying incidents have been observed in schools which were infrequent before 1989, when "school discipline" and the duties of the teachers concerning the supervising of pupils were more rigorously respected; a serious lack of discipline (violent arguments between pupils and even with teachers), violent actions by aggressors outside school (theft, rape, threats or revenge). If drugs have happily not yet penetrated the Romanian market, alcoholism has sometimes become the main cause of violence at school.

During the first term in the school year 1992-93, 14 284 secondary school pupils were excluded mainly as a result of absenteeism, 1 147 were excluded because of serious disciplinary incidents.

The Ministry of Education, in co-operation with the Ministry of Youth and Sport, has drafted joint educational programmes aimed at children between the ages of seven and nineteen (programmes for education in morals and civics, sports, tourism, leisure, organising associations, sexual education, and practical vocational programmes).

It should be stressed that these negative phenomena are fortunately not representative of the dominant aspect of Romanian education. The school stimulates high quality competition between pupils from various schools, as was demonstrated in the last academic year by the radio competition for "top level schools". The school also represents in most cases a stimulating space for cultural, sporting or social activities (inter-school competitions, exhibitions, cultural events – literary, theatrical and musical competitions – cultural exchanges, social action – the involvement of pupils in the activities of the children's homes or old people's homes – excursions, etc.). Relations between teachers and pupils in most cases also have a stimulating effect on the development of the pupils' personalities, this co-operation having the role of creating a healthy spiritual and relational climate in the school.

Interaction between school and society

While many associations, political parties, foundations and the Church have taken a greater interest in educational issues since 1989, the assistance and support of such institutions and organisations has been directed mainly towards special education and children's homes, which have also received substantial international aid.

Outside support is also channelled to alternative schools (such as the Waldorf schools operating on an experimental basis at primary level only) and the activities of schools, groups or classes for an elite (or for gifted children). For example in 1993, the private Henri Coanda foundation granted more than 12 million lei for gifted children and a sum in foreign currency aimed at financing the participation of pupils in international competitions.

The world of business and industry has also taken an increased interest in educational issues. Nevertheless, secondary education not only lacks funding and material support, but also needs to become a flexible institution, open to genuine, productive co-operation with companies and accepted by them as a partner.

The relations between vocational schools and the world of work are somewhat difficult to clarify. There are schools in which the pupils have signed contracts with economic agents, but in others this type of contract is non-existent. Unfortunately, firms are increasingly demonstrating their intention to "get rid of" their relationship with vocational schools. Most of them have serious problems with their employees (salaries, unemployment, poor working conditions, etc.). There are still placements in firms which in the majority of cases take place in conditions which are not appropriate for a teaching process. It is perhaps not correct to speak of the hostility of firms towards vocational schools, considered at the moment as just one more burden, but of a lack of interest in the training of the young generation of workers.

Moreover, the organisation of vocational training at the moment is needlessly complicated (as mentioned above), which has negative consequences on its efficiency. In Romania, there is still no system for vocational training in which firms are directly and actively interested in becoming involved as far as the financing and organisation of the study programme is concerned.

Moreover, in the new Education Bill, the Ministry of Education is proposing to encourage all forms of private education, including vocational schools at all levels and to make vocational training, as from 1994-95 entirely the responsibility of economic agents, along the lines of the "dual system" in Germany (it is assumed that at this point most firms will have been privatised).

The primary task facing secondary schools today is to establish a balance between theoretical and practical training, by repairing the dangerous schism that had divided them prior to 1989.

The relations between school and society must moreover be transformed in the direction of closer co-operation between schools on one hand, and communities and families on the other. At the moment this co-operation is restricted to a formal dialogue – parents are barely involved in the life of the school and communities have not yet taken any support initiatives beyond the strict obligations of the school legislation in force (or rather of the legislative confusion at the moment).

6. Educational support and professional evaluation

Professional evaluation

At the present time, it is extremely difficult to evaluate secondary education from the standpoint of quality, level of student performance, or effectiveness (as part of a nation-wide evaluation of the education system).

The 1992 Education Bill provides for evaluation as an on-going process rather than result-based assessment. For the academic year 1992-93, the Ministry of Education, in co-operation with the Institute of Educational Sciences and the local inspectorates, launched an experiments in several districts for the purpose of creating a national system of evaluation in all subjects.

The entrance examinations to the lycea and vocational schools (after the 8th grade), to the post-lyceum schools, the technical and vocational schools, the baccalaureate and other final examinations are organised by the Ministry of Education in co-operation with other interested ministries, in co-operation with the school inspectorates. The entrance examination to the lyceum consists of two written papers (Romanian language and literature and mathe-

matics), preceded by an aptitude test (depending on the type of lyceum: music, sports, etc.). The subjects for the written examinations are the same at national level. The entrance examination to vocational schools takes place along similar lines.

For post-lyceum schools lasting two to three years, the candidates have to sit the following examinations: writing of a letter explaining their choice on a given subject, in keeping with the orientation chosen by the student, and a test in general culture in the subjects of the 11th and 12th grades.

There are two annual examination sessions, one in June/July and one in autumn to fill the places which remain vacant after the summer session.

The up-grading of the entrance examination is a constant pre-occupation at the Ministry of Education. It involves the introduction of new examination techniques (for example, multiple choice tests). As from 1990, new norms have also been set up concerning the organisation of the final examinations. Some principles concerning the new conception of the baccalaureate have also been applied to the new organisation of the final examinations in the vocational schools (a written examination and a practical one) particularly as far as the methodology of the written papers is concerned (representing the technological subject with the highest number of hours in the teaching programme).

The efficiency of education is periodically analysed by the department for evaluation. At the end of the first term of the school year 1992-93 the rate of successful entry to the lyceum was 73,70% in the lyceum (day classes) and 61,75% (evening classes), 74,71% in vocational schools, 70,75% in further education schools, and 80,86% in the post-lyceum schools which represent a warning concerning the quality of teaching. Many observers of teaching describe this situation metaphorically as "The Romanian education drift".

As a result of the dramatic and rapid changes in the job market, a massive re-orientation of students' options in relation to their educational careers has taken place. In 1991, and again in 1992, this re-orientation led to a vastly reduced number of candidates taking the university entrance examinations, except in such special areas as law, economics, medicine, psychology and sociology.

For the first time in twenty years, many universities were unable to fill their student quotas on the basis of the entrance examinations.

This re-orientation is extremely important, firstly owing to the economic and employment crises affecting Romania today (with close to one million unemployed – the unemployment rate in March 1993 was 9,4%), and sec-

ondly, in view of the possibility of studying in private colleges (approximately 80), which have less stringent standards (the status of this growing number of private colleges is not yet clearly defined – in order to receive accreditation from the Ministry of Education, they will have to fulfil extremely stringent requirements).

Another post-1989 phenomenon is the educational "black market", consisting of private classes called "meditations". The price of an hour of "meditation" is extremely high, reflecting, as it did prior to 1989 on the black market, the real cost of an hour's teaching (an average of roughly 1 000 to 1 500 lei), which is far more than teachers are paid in state-run schools.

For teaching at gymnasium level, the trend in pass rates, repeat rates and failure rates is the following:

	1989-90	1990-91	1991-92
Pass rate	92,6%	91,2%	90,6%
Repeat rate	5,4%	5,9%	6,7%
Failure rate	2%	2,9%	2,6%

Of the total of the 305 105 pupils who finished their gymnasium studies at the end of 1991-92, in July 1992, 125 971 were admitted to the 9th grade in the lyceum, 36 876 without contract and 7 790 with contracts to the first year of the vocational school (170 637 in all) which represents 55,9% of the school population which finished the 8th grade. Of the total of the 189 557 places in the 9th grade in the lyceum 63 586 were not taken up (33,5%) after the July 1992 session; of the total of 54 972 places allotted for the 9th grade in the vocational schools, 4 584 were not taken up (8,3%). After the second session of entrance examinations in August 1992, the distribution of pupils in the secondary sector was the following: 74% in the lyceum, 12,7% in the vocational schools for the pupils who have completed eight grades, 12% in the vocational schools for the pupils who have completed ten grades and 1,3% of the pupils in vocational schools for the disabled.

It will be possible to complete the results for the baccalaureate and the entrance examination to higher education for the school year 1992-93 in two to three months for the preceding school year the success rate at the baccalaureate was over 76% (86% for the day classes).

These figures raise serious questions about the efficiency and quality of the education system, and its capacity to prepare individuals for working life.

With regard to the relationship between resources used and results obtained, two equally dangerous situations should also be pointed out, namely:

– the lack of resources (human, material and financial);

– the mismanagement of these resources, resulting in wasted expenditure. In this respect, it should be pointed out that schools with the same number of classes and the same profile spend very varied amounts of money from one district to another: in Iassi, 118 million lei are allotted whereas in Calarasi almost 600 million lei are allotted.

Support organisations

Secondary schools receive support from a number of institutions and organisations with education-related activities:

– centres for educational and vocational guidance centres;

– speech therapy centres;

– research institutes such as the Institute of Educational Sciences, which have branches in other cities;

– inspectorates and specialised departments of the Ministry of Education which – through school evaluations, among other methods – are able to diagnose needs and arrange a fair apportionment of human, material and financial means;

– teacher training institutes and colleges (with long or short programmes) that provide teaching staff, although it is now strongly believed that an educational reform should begin with a reform of the teacher training system;

– the unions, which are very divided at the present time, and which defend conflicting interests, mirroring the diversity of allegiances and leanings among the teaching staff (at the moment there are five or six unions in pre-university and university education; since 1990 their activity has been directed mainly towards the implementation of collective work contracts for the teaching personnel and towards protest demonstrations: strikes, demonstrations and threats of blocking the academic system and the final and entrance examinations in support of their demands. The unions thus make an essential contribution to the drafting of bills which have in the long run contributed to the drawing up of the definitive form of the Education Bill, which is at the moment before the Parliamentary Commission for Education, bills which stress primarily decentralisation, autonomy and the privatisation of education. As from 1992, they have been increasingly involved in promoting new forms of training in the teaching staff, based on the unpaid participation of teachers and on modern methods.

The bill for the new rules for the organisation of the inspectorate was submitted in March for public discussion. It expresses the intention of the Ministry of Education to grant increased responsibilities to the Inspectorate con-

cerning the organisation and local management of resources, as also in the sphere of training for teaching staff. It is also intended to eliminate the overlapping which is still evident between responsibilities of the Ministry, of the inspectorates and of the houses for teaching personnel. This overlapping is a serious source of blockage and confrontation between the various administrative interests.

We cannot as yet speak of a significant change in the functions of the inspectorate as a result of the increased autonomy of the schools particularly as this autonomy does not yet have a legal basis.

The changes in the role of the inspectorate aim primarily at the recruitment of personnel by competitive examination (which represents a further guarantee of quality) and the endeavours defined of new functions for the school inspectorate by reducing its repressive role in favour of an advisory role for teaching staff.

The Ministry of Education and the Institute of Educational Sciences also compile data and documentation (including statistics) concerning the way the educational system operates. Educational documentation is also collected through the Central Education Library and specialised journals (The Teaching Tribune and The Educational Review). Dissemination of educational documentation is difficult owing to financial problems (the high cost of subscriptions and postage). Although efforts have been made to bring educational information to all areas of the country, unfortunately it remains highly centralised.

7. Financing and budget

In comparison with other European countries, Romania spends relatively little on education (in 1987, state spending per pupil came to approximately $200). The percentage of the state budget earmarked for education is small, but it has increased in relation to the period preceding 1989.

Years	% of GNP
1975	3,5
1988	2,1
1990	4,0 (making up 38,5% of total expenditure on social and cultural activities)
1992	3,12

For the school year 1992-93 the budget is 323,5 million lei. In 1991, 20% of the budget was allotted to secondary education. Schools also have the benefit of income from accommodation taxes (boarding schools and school

canteens), contributions from the economic agents, taxes from the entrance examinations to post-lycea schools, artistic functions, the production of school workshops (therefore sources of financing which are outside the budget). Moreover, the ways and the extent to which the economic agents will have to contribute to the financing of education are not yet clearly defined.

The breakdown of public spending on education was as follows in 1991:

	%
Pre-primary schools	7,7
Other schools	7,2
Children's homes	11,2
Primary schools	40,5
Secondary schools	22,8
Higher education	10,5

The 1992 Education Bill requires general, compulsory, state education to be provided free of charge up to the age of 16. The state also helps pupils from modest backgrounds through a system of scholarships based on social need or academic merit – in keeping with the present concept of support from the state for education.

At the moment, the financing of state education is wholly borne by the budget of the Ministry of Education which distributes the corresponding sums to each district. The parents support the school only through voluntary contributions each term or by the boarding taxes. They can also buy the school books but they are not forced to do so. The schools must make books available to the pupils.

Since 1992, the World Bank has sent several teams on study missions to Romania, with a view to granting a loan to begin educational reform in clearly defined areas (production of textbooks, curricula, computerisation, etc.). This loan was granted in December 1993. As from September 1994, teams began work on various themes.

The 1992 Education Bill provides for a genuine decentralisation of educational funding, by transferring a number of administrative powers to local authorities and financial agencies.

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B. Challenges facing educational reform

We can already identify several challenges facing educational reform:

– the economic crisis and rising unemployment, which make pupil guidance difficult and require extra funding for re-training the labour force;

– the dramatic drop in the birth rate since 1989, from 18-19% to 11,4-11,9% in 1992 (following the liberalisation of abortion and the re-introduction of family planning education) which in a few years will affect teaching standards and the job market. However, this could produce positive effects if it means putting classrooms to better use and improving classroom activities; in 1992, 14 900 fewer births were recorded than in 1991 and the natural evolution of the population was negative in more than half the districts in the country, including Bucharest. The highest birth rate (14%) was recorded in the poorest districts of the country whereas in the most developed departments it fell, sometimes even to below 10%;

– the shortage of educational premises and lack of resources at several levels;

– the negative repercussions of certain social phenomena (drugs, violence, alcoholism) on educational activity;

– political tensions which are felt even in the classroom;

– the tendency to take schools for granted and to see them only as a means of obtaining a diploma;

– the lack of enthusiasm on the part of teaching staff in adopting new methods and adapting to the new aims of education;

– the danger of perpetuating the notion that pupils should receive an education based on theoretical studies (which also results in overloading curricula, over-complicating textbooks and overworking pupils) instead of providing students with genuine training for life.

The major challenge of the reform in Romanian education will be to find the means of implementing what was good and always admired in the system: the high level of the general culture of the pupils, diversity of profiles, teacher training, the teaching of foreign languages, and so on – with less effort than at the moment and, at the same time, of adapting it to the new realities in Romania.

Appendix A

1. Budgets

Year	Millions	National income (%)	GNP (%)	Total socio-cultural expenditure in the national budget (%)
1970	99 235,1			27,0
1975	12 892,7			25,3
1976	14 462,8			26,2
1977	15 291,1			26,1
1978	16 189,3			25,9
1979	17 393,7			26,5
1989		7,17	2,08	26,82
1990		10,37	2,74	30,48
1991		12,65	3,77	41,59

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2. General data (1970-80)

	1970-71	1975-76	1976-77	1978-79	1979-80
Establishments	26 861	30 044	30 049	29 916	29 904
Total school population	3 764 523	4 110 930	4 297 050	4 642 422	4 488 371
Day classes	3 526 424	3 759 369	3 852 198	3 981 772	4 046 195
Evening classes	151 362	169 801	204 349	275 087	275 440
Correspondence classes (s f)	86 737	181 760	240 503	385 563	166 732
Teachers (including instructors)	206 823	241 488	248 080	256 595	258 832
Lycea					
Establishments	589	831	1 064	974	977
Pupils	371 724	505 891	901 977	1 039 050	1 030 120
Apprentices	14 181	23 140	41 617	51 485	50 401
Vocational schools					
Establishments	403	426	440	555	595
Pupils	195 941	122 630	93 747	138 142	143 636
Teachers	19 775	5 391	3 826	2 509	2 553
Apprentices	85 731	31 356	25 564	6 960	4 422
Technical education					
Establishments	282	280	293	236	265
Pupils	33 010	35 191	36 269	19 176	24 085
Teachers	1 810	1 647	1 562	168	237
of which, schools for instructors					
Establishments	113	141	156	236	275
Pupils	8 325	11 810	13 819	19 176	24 085
Teachers	319	224	356	168	237

3. General data 1981-93

	1986-87	1989-90	1990-91	1991-92
Establishments	28 679	27 327	28 167	28 808
School population	4 103 082	5 544 648	5 036 379	4 774 836
Teachers	238 819	222 376	259 458	260 394
Lycea				
Establishments	981	981	1 198	1 209
Pupils	1 196 949	1 346 315	995 689	778 420
Teachers	46 124	34 044 (including instructors)	45 723	44 017
Vocational training				
Pupils		306 126	395 085	430 210
Vocational schools				717
Establishments	747	798	707	375 303
Pupils	257 196	304 533	365 860	5 319
Teachers	2 420	1 898	4 209	5 319
Apprentices	-	-	68 114	102 526
Technical education				
Establishments	313	39	310	384 300
Pupils	23 204			
Teachers	104		980	1 300
Of which, schools for instructors				
Establishments	313	39	149	172
Pupils	23 204	1 593	11 158	19 734
Teachers	104	-	138	254

4. Number of pupils according to the language of teaching

Pupils	1980-81	1987-88	1989-90	1991-92
Gymnasium level teaching	3 308 462	3 027 196	2 891 810	2 608 914
Romanian	3 080 542	2 833 955	2 715 425	2 461 969
Hungarian	190 196	168 524	153 379	134 486
German	34 646	22 893	21 319	10 167
Serbian	1 029	523	455	575
Ukrainian	190	74	50	140
Slovak	1 673	1 074	1 023	918
Czech	186	153	159	145
English	-	-	-	226
French	-	-	-	228
Lyceum level teaching	979 741	1 228 490	1 346 315	778 420
Romanian	937 995	1 185 960	1 308 442	742 747
Hungarian	36 083	37 517	33 555	33 447
German	5 242	4 499	3 910	1 605
Serbian	142	185	142	197
Ukrainian	98	60	13	92
Slovak	181	269	253	133
English	-	-	-	27
French	-	-	-	172
Vocational and further education	139 758	278 003	304 533	375 303
Romanian	139 397	277 247	304 408	368 714
Hungarian	361	756	125	6380
Serbian	-	-	-	209
Slovak	-	-	-	-
German	-	-	-	-
Technical education for instructors	28 380	22 879	1 593	19 734
Romanian	28 323	22 837	1 593	19 652
Hungarian	57	423	-	82
Post lyceum education	-	-	-	35 173
Romanian	-	-	-	34 054
Hungarian	-	-	-	1 021
German	-	-	-	92
Slovak	-	-	-	6

5. Foreign language teaching staff

	1980-81	1987-88	1989-90	1991-92
Gymnasium level teaching	156 817	141 609	141 732	153 187
Romanian	145 041	131 832	132 310	143 634
Hungarian	9 760	8 516	8 221	8 842
German	1 815	1 132	1 074	565
Serbian	77	38	35	42
Ukrainian	17	8	5	5
Slovak	99	75	78	72
Czech	8	8	9	16
English	-	-	-	6
French	-	-	-	5
Lyceum level teaching	46 500	34 829	33 303	55 013
Romanian	45 036	34 201	32 859	52 861
Hungarian	1 236	511	291	1 941
German	222	109	145	187
Serbian	-	-	-	24
Slovak	6	8	8	-
Vocational and further education	1 954	1 041	741	5 319
Romanian	1 948	1 041	741	5 215
Hungarian	6	-	-	104
Technical schools for instructors	257	46	-	254
Romanian	257	46	46	254 (including teacher trainers)
Post-lyceum schools	-	-	-	1 046
Romanian	-	-	-	1 019
Hungarian	-	-	-	27 (including teacher trainers)

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6. Number of pupils in the lyceum according to the foreign language taught 1991-92

Foreign language	1st language	2nd language	Evening classes
English	130 461	164 819	32 155
French	303 320	147 088	53 723
German	52 716	47 603	4 610
Russian	101 032	95 203	23 765
Spanish	1 110	1 008	-
Italian	60	185	-

7. Number of diplomas

	1971-75	1976-80	1981-85	1986-87	1990-91
Gymnasium	1 755 220	1 942 092	2 051 915	359 361	331 551
Lyceum	541 505	673 086	789 249	200 858	188 732
of which:					
Industrial lycea	32 049	332 717	548 950	155 019	138 367
Agricultural and forestry lycea	32 433	44 924	7 184	19 177	20 190+ 968
Economic lycea	33 262	30 974	9 758	8 813	10 375
Lycea for education	20 987	20 224	3 395	989	1 229
Health service lycea	525	7 029	-	3 012	3 301
Art lycea	5 365	6 022	-	518	477
Academic lycea	416 884	110 220	69 777	-	11 609
Lycea for mathematics and physics	-	91 551	7 193	9 451	-
Lycea for natural sciences	-	6 702	30 705	1 344	-
Lycea for philosophy and nature	-	22 723	366 189	2 535	-
Vocational and apprentices' schools	571 623	357 324	-	150 205	115 697
Technical and post-lycea schools	62 925	32 869	-	-	1 395
Teacher training colleges	32 281	48 549	61 041	10 917	864
Two-year teachers' colleges	3 549	-	-	-	-
Higher education	154 736	170 418	184 220	30 643	25 927

Appendix B

1. School population as a percentage of the population of Romania

Year	Population of Romania	School population	%
1945	15 760 000	1 872 338	11.9
1950	16 311 000	2 319 196	14.2
1965	19 027 000	4 103 082	21.6
1970	20 253 000	4 364 652	21.6
1975	21 245 000	5 087 917	23.9
1980	22 201 000	5 584 821	25.2
1985	22 724 836	5 592 344	24.6
1990	23 206 720	5 036 379	21.7
1991	22 749 000	4 774 836	21.0

2. Teaching staff by type of teaching (pre-university education)

Instructors	36 314	14.6%
Head masters	56 938	22.8%
Teachers	156 149	62.6%
Total	249 401	

Appendix C

1. Lycea – humanities profile: philology section

	Subjects taught	Number of hours per week			
		IX	X	XI	XII
A	**Education in humanities and social science**	**17**	**17**	**19**	**19**
	Romanian language and literature	5	5	4	4
	Modern language I	3	3	3	3
	Modern language II	3	3	3	3
	Latin world literature	0	0	2	2
	History	2	2	2	2
	Psychology	2	0	0	0
	Logic, sociology	0	2	0	0
	Economics	0	0	2	0
	Philosophy	0	0	0	2
B	**Basic education in the sciences**	**7**	**7**	**5**	**5**
	Mathematics	3	3	2	2
	Physics	1	1	1	1
	Chemistry	1	1	0	0
	Geography	1	1	1	1
	Biology	1	1	1	1
C	**Physical education**	**2**	**2**	**2**	**2**
D	**Optional subjects**	**3**	**3**	**3**	**3**
E	**Educational class**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**
Total		30	30	30	30

For the three hours of optional subjects pupils can choose one of the following possibilities (A-E):

	Subjects taught	Number of hours per week			
		IX	X	XI	XII
A	**Shorthand and typing**	3	3	3	3
	Shorthand	1	1	1	1
	Typing and correspondence	2	2	2	2
B	**Librarianship and archive work**	3	3	3	3
	Archive work	1	1	1	1
	Librarianship	1	1	2	2
	Reconditioning and restoring books	1	1	0	0
C	**Distribution of books**	3	3	3	3
	Techniques for presentation and distribution of books	1	1	1	1
	Accounting	1	1	1	1
	Practical work	1	1	1	1
D	**General linguistics and literary theory**	3	3	3	3
	Elements of general linguistics	2	2	1	1
	Elements of literary theory	1	1	2	2
E	**History of culture**	3	3	3	3
	History of religion	2	2	1	1
	History of art	1	1	2	2

For the "Foreign languages" sections in this profile, four hours per week are allotted for each of the two languages to be studied. As far as the optional subjects are concerned, the pupils can choose one of the five following subjects: shorthand and typing, tourism, translation (which includes the study of a third language), general linguistics and literary theory, the history of culture.

2. The scientific profile: mathematics – physics

	Subjects taught	Number of hours per week			
		IX	X	XI	XII
A	**Education in humanities and social science**	**11**	**11**	**10**	**9**
	Romanian language and literature	3	3	3	3
	Modern language I	2	2	2	2
	Modern language II	2	2	2	2
	Latin	1	1	0	0
	History	2	2	1	1
	Psychology	1	0	0	0
	Logic, sociology	0	1	0	0
	Economics	0	0	1	0
	Philosophy	0	0	0	1
B	**Basic education in the sciences**	**14**	**14**	**15**	**14**
	Mathematics	5	5	5	5
	Physics	4	4	4	4
	Chemistry	2	2	2	2
	Biology	2	2	2	1
	Geography	1	1	1	1
	Geology	0	0	1	0
	Astronomy, astro-physics	0	0	0	0
C	**Physical education**	**2**	**2**	**2**	**2**
D	**Optional subjects**	**2**	**2**	**3**	**4**
E	**Educational class**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**
Total		30	30	30	30

For the optional subjects pupils can choose one of the following:

	Subjects taught	Number of hours per week			
		IX	X	XI	XII
A	**Techniques of calculation and computer science**	**2**	**2**	**3**	**4**
	The basis of computer science	1	1	1	2
	Techniques of calculation	1	1	2	2
	General technical training	**2**	**2**	**3**	**4**
B	Geometrical drawings and projections	2	0	0	0
	Descriptive geometry	0	2	0	0
	Technical drawing and information	0	0	3	4
	Laboratory techniques	**2**	**2**	**3**	**4**
C	Applied laboratory techniques in physics	2	2	2	2
	Analysis of experimental data in physics	0	0	1	2
	Applied mathematics	2	2	3	4
D	Applied mathematics in socio-economic activities	2	2	2	1
	Elements of mathematical statistics	0	0	0	1
E	Sociology	0	0	1	2
	The history of science and techniques	**2**	**2**	**3**	**4**
	History of science and techniques	2	2	2	2
	Epistemology	0	0	1	2

For the same profile, the differences between the three sections (mathematics/physics, physics/chemistry and chemistry/biology) are defined by the interplay of the number of hours allotted to the four subjects within the group B (basic scientific education) and by the content of the choices in group D.

Thus, the physics/chemistry section allots four hours a week to the study of physics and three hours to chemistry. The choices are adequate in this section: applied laboratory techniques in physics and in chemistry.

The same principle applies for the chemistry/biology section where three hours per week are allotted to physics, chemistry and biology.

The choices in group D are as follows: applied laboratory techniques in biochemistry, agro-biology, protection of the environment, history of science and techniques.

3. Further education or apprentices' schools

	Subjects taught	Number of hours per week					
		Group 1		Group 2		Group 3	
		Year I	Year II	Year I	Year II	Year I	Year II
A	**Education in humanities and social science**	**5**	**2**	**5**	**2**	**5**	**2**
	Romanian language and literature	2	2	2	2	2	2
	History	1	0	1	0	1	0
	Geography	1	0	1	0	1	0
	Civic education	1	0	1	0	1	0
B	**Basic education in the Sciences**						
	Mathematics	**7**	**4**	**7**	**4**	**7**	**4**
	Physics	2	2	2	2	2	2
	Chemistry	2	2	1	1	1	1
	Elements of biology and public health	1	0	2	1	2	0
	Physical education	2	0	2	0	2	1
C	**Vocational and specialised**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**
D	**training**						
E	**Educational class**	**4**	**4**	**4**	**4**	**4**	**4**
F	**Practical classes**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**
		12	**18**	**12**	**18**	**12**	**18**
Total		30	30	30	30	30	30

Group 1: Trades in the following spheres: mechanics, electricity, building, carpentry, light industry, small-scale manufacturing, commerce.

Group 2: Trades in the following spheres: building materials, chemicals, food industry, public catering.

Group 3: Trades in the agricultural sphere.

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